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The Historical Outlook

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Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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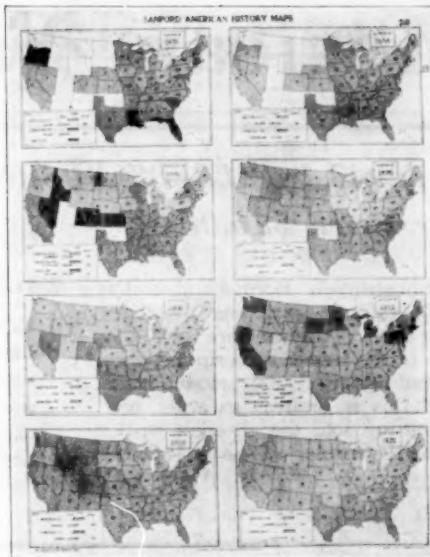
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Mechanism and Culture¹

BY JAMES T. SHOTWELL, PH.D., LL.D

Socrates, according to Plato, lamented the passing of that time in Greece when the only known facts about the past were those treasured in the memory of the tribal bard, and the coming of that degenerate age when people no longer would bother remembering things they could read in books. He deprecated the invention of writing. Yet it was by the written page of his pupil Plato that the conversations in the cool gardens on the outskirts of Athens have survived, to secure his own immortality.

This objection of Socrates to the invention of an alphabet was something more than the proposition of a philosopher in need of an argument. It was a protest against mechanism. Making black marks on Egyptian papyri or skins from Asia—those skins the merchants of Pergamum later made into parchments (pergamenta)—compares with reciting an epic as the use of machinery compares with hand labor. Socrates, we suppose, would have preferred telling the time by a guess at the lengthening shadow on the square rather than by the use of such an instrument as a watch. By ignoring inventions one kept "close to nature."

This is an attitude to be found throughout the whole history of culture. Its most earnest advocates have been the artists, impatient of anything interposed between nature and the individual. But idealists generally have joined in the denunciation or shared the contempt for mechanism, no matter what their field. Literature has held aloof, except in patronizing, romantic moods, until the present. History has ignored the very implements of progress—the tools of work, the mechanism of effort—even while recording the results. There has, therefore, developed a gulf between "culture" and achievement which has widened with each new invention.

There have been, in recent years, some signs of a revolt against the conspiracy of the poetically-minded to ignore the creations of the practically-minded, but unless the revolt becomes a revolution we shall never square ourselves with reality. If we are to make anything intelligent out of the world we live in, we must free ourselves from this romantic sentimentality, which goes back to Socrates and beyond. Idealism, left to itself, is futility. There is no sadder fact in the tragic circumstances of the present than that idealism failed to avert the desolation of Europe. It will always fail, so long as it holds itself aloof from the grimy facts of daily life.

Like the forces of nature, ideas must be harnessed and set to work, or things will remain exactly as they were before. One cannot weave cloth with an idea, but embody the idea in wood and iron and it will replace all the hand-loom workers in the world. Wherever a locomotive sends its puff of steam through the smoke-stack, the idea of George Stephenson is at work—an idea that a forced draught on the fire would give the engine enough power to pull its load. There are spindle whorls in the Grimaldi caves along the slopes of Menton, used by the fingers of spinning women of the late stone age, over 10,000 years ago. How often in all that stretch of years have spinners dreamed of something to carry on the motion of the whorl besides the arm and hand! Out of such longings came—no one knows from where—the simple spinning wheels of the late middle ages. Yet it was only in the eighteenth century that a tinkering watchmaker helped Arkwright to get his roller-frame to work, and the work of spinning passed forever from the fireside to the mill. New cities arose by the marshy waste of Lancashire, and the shipping of Britain, carrying its goods overseas, made possible a new world empire—not created in a fit of absent-mindedness, as an idealist historian declared, but through the might of the Industrial Revolution.

Few students of literature stop to think that its existence depends upon paper and ink as well as thought! The records of history depend upon the cutting of the chisel in the stone, the sharp impress of the scratching stick, on clay or on wax tablet, the scrawl of charcoal or ink on leaves of trees, papyri wrappings, or leather. Before these devices were used lie the unnumbered centuries of that period we call the prehistoric; this side of it, is the world of history. History begins with writing; the prehistoric, as we use the term, is a synonym for the preliterate. History depends upon that mechanism which transfers thought from brains to material substances, and so enables thought to endure while the thinkers come and go.

It is strange that the extent to which thought depends upon mechanism for its preservation seldom occurs to us except when the mechanism fails. We know that the burning of the library at Alexandria blotted out for all time much of the culture of the distant antiquity which it had gathered in the papyri on its shelves. We know as well that the last classics of Greece and Rome perished in the mouldy rolls of papyri which could not last in the climate of the northern Mediterranean as they do in Egypt. The book trade of the ancients was careless of the future,

¹ An address delivered at the Fifty-second Annual Commencement of Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken, N. J.

—as ours is today. But had it not been for papyri rolls dealt in by those astute traders who brought their goods to the wharves of Athens and Ostia, it is doubtful if the literature of classic Greece and Rome would have been produced at all. Had there been nothing better than clay tablets to scratch, how would the Augustan age have achieved what it did? Imagine Dante in his exile, accumulating the mud cylinders necessary for the Divine Comedy. Or, to bring the matter down to our own time, what would our modern literature and journalism amount to if the Arabs had not invented paper? A printing press without paper is unthinkable; and literature cannot exist without them both. We need a *Sartor Resartus* in the history of literature to show us how naked and helplessly limited is thought except when provided with mechanism.

There have been two great creative epochs in the history of our civilization; that of ancient Greece and that of today. The one produced critical thought; the other applied it to produce machines. Besides these two contributions to secular society, all others rank as minor. The one stirred into activity that critical intelligence, upon which rests our whole apparatus of knowledge; the other made nature our ally not merely by applying its power to do our work, but also by supplying the means for extending knowledge itself, almost to the infinite. Seen in this light the protest of our modern humanists against mechanism has little of that insight into reality which was the characteristic note of Socrates.

What is needed in both humanists and scientists is the Hellenic sense of just proportion, so that neither thought nor machines shall become master of life. For thought turned upon itself, divorced from the setting in a real world, becomes as idle as the speculations of the schoolmen; and machines become, not instruments for human liberation, but the dominant element in society. Education in a modern world must respond to both these demands. It cannot be purely literary or idealistic without losing touch with the spirit of the age in which we live; it cannot be purely technical and remain education.

How many of us realize that a steam engine is as genuinely an historic product, as fittingly the symbol of an age, as the feudal castle or the medieval cathedral? that a modern factory is as much the center of historical forces as the ancient city?

We shall never see the true perspective of history so long as we accept unquestioned the mediocre outlook of what we call common-sense people. We need imagination and insight even more than judgment for, otherwise our judgments simply circumscribe and limit our activities. If there were only one factory in the world, if the power that Watt released from the coal mines were so concentrated that instead of invading every hamlet of the civilized world it was confined to the single valley of the Clyde and drew to it there the work of the world, we should have some feeling for the importance in history of one of the great inventions. But instead, its effects penetrate the environment of common life everywhere, and so we miss its meaning.

Invention is an art. It is the projection into matter itself of the conscious will. It makes matter a part of the agency of control, and also a part of intelligence. Loose grains of muddy ore, lying in the bosom of the hills, become iron axes. They have nothing in themselves to indicate axes. They might, if placed too close to a fire, under certain circumstances become hardened into a mass. But while the ore is merely matter, the axe is matter plus mind. It bears the impress of intelligence, and that to so great a degree that the anthropologists passing before the rows of axes in the cases at a museum can reconstruct from their form and composition the state of culture of the makers, like a pianist whose symphonies arise from the keys of his piano. The axe implies both consciousness and purpose; it means cutting. The same is even true of a forked stick which the savage uses as a spade, though here the injection of the human element into the material is less obvious, because the object has not been refashioned. The fork was a result of its nature as a branch; that is, a part of a vegetable mechanism for catching air in leaves and conveying nitrogen to the trunk. It was not produced by nature to dig potatoes. Nature leaves the branch in the air and the potato in the ground. But in the hands of man the fibres of wood, like the particles of iron, are turned into something else, they become part of conscious action, a continuation of muscle and an agency of mind. The potentialities of the tool are those of the brain that conceived it and controlled the fashioning hand, as much as they are those of matter. Invention is a projection of consciousness into the unconscious; a creation.

If this can be said at the dawn of invention, and of a tool like a digging stick, which itself embodies no thought, which is not a tool except when so regarded or used, the utility of which is accidental, it is abundantly evident when invention produces not a tool but a machine. The difference between a tool and a machine is that the tool helps a man to do his work, but the machine does the work itself. The man changes his position entirely with reference to it. His business with the machine is simply to make it work. The factory operative does no spinning; he mends threads and makes the spindles spin, forces the steam to move the iron and the iron to transmit its energy to the whirling spools, and they in turn to gather up that energy and imprison it in the spirals of thread or yarn, where our fingers later may find it stored up—a source of strength against strains and pulls. The factory spinner merely assists at this transformation like the impressario at a theatre. Steam and iron and fibre dance before him into new combinations, like a dream from the Arabian Nights.

The machines that do these things are the perpetuation of the initial energy of their inventors. In the steam engine, for instance, Papin, Newcomen and Watt have found an immortality larger than we have yet realized. In its gliding rods and noiseless wheels the brain of the inventor lives as that of Virgil in the Aeneid. But while the art of the one is cast cathedral-like, in static mould, to resist the forces of time by its perfection and its strength, that of the other—

the invention—is thrown, as it were, into the crucible of change, and creates itself the forces that reveal its imperfections and weakness. The engine develops the speed that breaks it down. Yet the immortality of the invention is perhaps the surer of the two, for it enlists its destroyer as its ally. It becomes part of change itself, and so gains some control over it. It sets going the irrecoverable march of events, which make up what we call time, and becomes an integral part of the ever-fleeting present. For its immortality lies in its use. By the work it does it disturbs the poise of phenomena so that once started it creates the demand for its own continuance. It contains its own stimulation, for its imperfections call as much for further invention as its successes encourage to new ones. So it is a social phenomenon of the most complex nature. If it immortalizes the Watts and Arkwrights, it is only by merging their creations into that of a vast composite whole. The original engine of Watts and spinning frame of Arkwright are in museums; but both machines are also preserved wherever engines are at work or cotton is being spun. The original inventors have become contributors to a more august creation than they guessed. The brain of the individual scientist or mechanic fuses its creation (steam valve or automatic brake) into those of all society and all future time. It will live only so long as it can be adjusted to the changing machine. Each bolt and bar, each wheel or crank is the crystallized thought of some nameless engineer. When they fit and go, the structure lives, and each part is instinct with life. Apart or unfitted they die. The cylinder that might hold the power to drive ocean-liners is good only for the scrapheap unless the pistons fit and the gearings work. And so, if one could imagine the whole dynamic force of the Industrial Revolution gathered together and concentrated in a single cylinder, with a power to which that of Niagara would be like that of a rivulet, it would be as useless as the energy of ocean tides today, unless there were the nicest adjustment in the parts of the machine. Machinery is a social creation and is itself a sort of society!

Thus, in the social preservation of inventive thought, by a strange paradox, this individualistic age is the annihilation of the individual. Its greatest art-creation, machinery, it maintains and treasures only so long as the individual contributions are in tune with the whole.

There are two kinds of immortality: the immortality of monuments,—of things to look at and recall; and the immortality of use,—of things which surrender their identity but continue to live, things forgotten but treasured, and incorporated in the vital forces of society. Thought can achieve both kinds. It embodies itself in forms,—like epics, cathedrals, and even engines,—where the endurance depends upon the nature of the stuff used, the perfection of the workmanship and the fortunes of time. But it also embodies itself in use; that is, it can continue to work, enter into other thought, and continue to emit its energy even when its original mould is broken up.

It is the first kind of immortality—the monumental kind—which has mainly drawn our attention, for it is clearer, if not larger, in our consciousness. Use, on the other hand, obliterates outlines so that the things used most are often least seen. So in keeping with our natural tendency to visualize our thought even in the things of use, as if to make up for this indistinctness, we encourage the perpetuation of form,—in institutions and traditions,—and enshrine it in art.

Let us be clear about this monumental side. Poems live in themselves and not simply as stimulations to deeds or other thoughts. Form imposes itself on thought and preserves by means of its external beauty, even though it is often only a successful distortion of the thought with which it started. Cathedrals stand before us out of the Middle Ages which created them, defying time in their own right, by the double strength of poise and beauty in stately columns and towering walls. These formal perpetuations of thought in its own expression are the most appreciated, as they are the most obvious. They require no penetrating analysis to detect; they are matters of pure observation. Thought grips materials without effort, but hesitates to tackle thought; so the concrete world lodges in the memory while the abstractions slip by unnoticed.

So important is this formal apprehension of things, that it has been taken at its face value by society, as society takes things at their face value (which includes of course the value of the face not simply its looks), and made synonymous with art; as if there were not a greater art in the mastery of those intangible, elusive forces which have escaped from their mould and penetrate wherever thought can go, the art of mathematics, science, and invention. Indeed, the same tendency which makes us see the obvious first and prize it most carries us still further. It tends to become a sort of sacramental attitude, consecrating not only the form in which the thought is cast, but the material embodied in it and the environment which moulded it. The tongue of Dante, of Luther, and of the King James' Bible are monuments of such consecration. We even carry this sacramentalism to its primitive conclusion. Although we know better, a strain of fetish worship runs through us all. The bones of men receive our reverence, as if in them resided—or resides—the efficacy of their thought and action. Placards are posted where thinkers have lived and died, as if their thought belonged like some haunting spirit to walls and garden walks.

Now all of this is legitimate enough so long as much of our thought is sacramental and our feelings stir with fetishistic suggestions at historic sites or reliques. But it obscures the larger life and the truer immortality of thought, the immortality of use. Dante's vision has entered into many a scheme of the world besides that into which he wove the picture of the Florence of his day. In fact, for centuries it moulded the cosmology of all Christendom and it still colors the common dream of immortality. It is this larger vision, built of the universal hope and fear, that is the real *Divina Commedia*, not the epic locked

in its stubborn Tuscan rhymes. No form of art, however perfect, can imprison or contain all of a living thought. If thought is alive it is more than its form. It will escape and live. Often it carries with it in its new use broken fragments of its form, and so may still be recognized at sight, as the architecture which produced the medieval cathedral breaks up into the buttressed piles of a modern city, a dome here, a flying arch there, walls soaring for the light, towers that carry forever the memories of Italy, but all disparate and merged into a new creation. This new creation, however, is no massive, self-contained whole, it is instinct with life and change. It is not static like the old, but eternally recreating itself, replacing arches and domes by girders, and leaving the old architecture behind with the problems it faced and the material it faced them with. The one imperishable thing is the science of which these are the fleeting traces.

It is the same with history as with art. At first glance what one sees in it is the formal event, the embodied institution, the externals of things. But when we look deeper we find that what happens in a given time and place is only a part of the real event. The cause and results are also parts of it. The result is merely the prolongation of the event in other circumstances, the releasing or the destruction of its potentialities. Battles are more than charging cavalry and riddled squares; they are not over when the firing ceases. They still continue in the hatreds and enthusiasms they arouse, in policies of state, in armaments, in nations themselves. The German Empire was Sedan crystallized—Sedan and other things. The battle itself is only the most concentrated form of an event, just as a poem is the most perfect expression of an idea. But the real significance, the essence of both is something larger than the form, however concentrated or complete it seems.

Now, it is in the same way that the cylinder syringe and separate condensers of Watt's first engine are curiosities for the historian, but the idea, the creative power, of that invention is moving on with all the forces of the Industrial Revolution. It was born of an application of Scottish ingenuity to Scottish thrift for all that Watt had in mind when he set to work was to save coal by making an engine that did not have to heat a cool cylinder at every stroke. But the engine that was invented to save coal, in its generation of power has eaten into the heart of every coal deposit of Britain, while the power it releases has not merely changed the material environment of civilization, but actually brought millions of human beings into existence—each with his and her own world of thought and work—in the stimulation of population through the production of wealth.

Indeed in a sense one may say that machines—the product and embodiment of invention—attain a sort of life of their own. They enter the field of industry to play their own rôle, always incalculable, often achieving what their creators never dreamed of and the opposite of what they intended. They are not simply aids to labor, doing more things than the

hand-worker, producing more and more things of the same kind, in an endless addition to the stock of goods. They are changing the mental and moral outlook of society as well as its physical basis. To what extent they do this must be left to a consideration of the economic interpretation of history. But when even philosophy (in the metaphysics of Bergson), recognizes that the machine steps, as it were, into the main problem of life, adjustment and adaptation—and so becomes an element, and the largest element—in this present phase of our biological evolution, it is time for history to wake up to this tremendous fact. It is not a fact for economists or philosophers alone. Not only is it, in itself, an *event* of keen human interest, clear definition and notable prominence, but it underlies every other event of large importance in the political history of the last half-century. The Industrial Revolution and the machine will inevitably furnish the central text of those histories of the future which deal with our era, as Bergson says. It is our privilege even now to see how magnificent the text will be.

Compare the transport of the eighteenth century with that under the control of the engineers of the twentieth. The overland trade in the goods of the world was carried or drawn by horse. Now there is more horsepower dragging the freight trains of this country than all the horsepower of all the ages put together. Even in the city which we can see across this river, at this moment there is more horsepower driving the irresistible freight along the chasm in the rock which we call our subway than is needed to move all the goods on the roads of England at the present time.

Go down to the great power-house where the force is generated to drive these trains and see what degree of control over nature has been reached with reference to the needs of civilization. There the power is generated from the coals of Pennsylvania. The heat stored up from suns of geologic ages is released once more under the exacting control of an engineer and adjusted by automatic devices to correspond with the weight upon the floors of the cars, so that it is hardly a figure of speech to say that as you step upon the train a few more leaves of prehistoric forests crackle away in the energy of heat, and that energy becomes a substitute for the human energy of the traveler.

Talk of miracles, with such an annihilation of time and control of power! One can imagine that, if Aristotle or Dante were back in the world today, they would be found exploring such mysteries as these and finding in them their inspiration, rather than in outworn philosophies or metaphysical speculation.

No writer that I know has ever expressed so well the full significance of the inventive art as the man who protested most against the changes which it wrought in the society of the nineteenth century. Let me close by quoting this extract tucked away in a hidden corner of the works of John Ruskin:

"What may be the real dignity of the mechanical

art itself? I cannot express the amazed awe, the crushed humility, with which I sometimes watch a locomotive take its breath at a railway station, and think what work there is in its bars and wheels, and what manner of men they must be who dig brown iron-stone out of the ground and forge it into that. What assemblage of accurate and mighty faculties in them, more than fleshly power over melting crag and coiling fire, fettered and finessed at last into the precision of watch-making; Titanian hammer-strokes beating out of lava these glittering cylinders and timely respondent valves, and fine ribbed rods, which touch each other as a serpent writhes in noiseless gliding, and omnipotence of grasp, infinite

complex anatomy of active steel, compared with which the skeleton of a living creature would seem, to the careless observer, clumsy and vile. What would the men who thought out this, who beat it out, who touched it with its polished calm of power, and who set it to its appointed task, and triumphantly saw it fulfill the task to the utmost of their will, feel or think about this weak hand of mine, timidly leading a little stain of water color which I cannot manage, into the imperfect shadow of something else....mere failure in every motion and endless disappointment; what I repeat would these iron-dominant genii think of me? And what ought I to think of them?"

Dynastic Delaware

BY PROFESSOR EZRA BOWEN, LAFAYETTE COLLEGE, EASTON, PA.

Delaware will be represented in the Senate of the Sixty-ninth Congress of the United States by two sons, or, rather, great-grandsons of France, Thomas F. Bayard and T. Coleman DuPont.

An Englishman of distinction, visiting in Philadelphia in the 70's, remarked to his host, "Now that I have learned to enjoy ice cream and have found that scrapple is a somewhat edible pork product, will you be so good as to tell me what is a Biddle?" But even the stranger, if he can run and read, does not ask in Delaware, "What is a Bayard?" or "What is a DuPont?" For answers multiply daily in action and in print. If you live in this smallest state and have no Bayard or DuPont connection of blood, business, or polities, you are a farmer or shopkeeper, a purveyor to the host.

Sailing up the river from the Capes to Philadelphia, the summer voyager discovers that an hour yields a thoroughly representative view of the sovereign state of Delaware: Long stretches of barren sand and reedy marsh, darkly wooded points, rich green farms wrinkling into toy hills, a village or two, and finally the Hotel DuPont, looking in the distance like a huge cube of cheese upon a slightly smoking griddle—the city of Wilmington.

The history of Delaware is as flat as its topography, but neither terrain nor history are entirely without feature. The history begins with accidental landings and settlements. Then a series of massacres—all kinds: Indians massacre Whites, Whites deal as thoroughly with the Red Skins. The Indians do not fall upon each other, but the Whites do. Follows an interval of what Grover Cleveland would call innocuous desuetude, enlivened by a small but vigorous part in the Revolution and a boundary dispute with her sister, Maryland. Then Delaware joins the Union—the first state to ratify the federal constitution. Thenceforth the Delaware story reads in large part like a Morse code, only instead of dots and dashes you have: Bayard, Bayard, DuPont; Bayard, Du-

Pont, Bayard; DuPont, DuPont, Bayard. And gossipy historians will insist upon adorning the Delaware tale by mentioning her predilection for the whipping post, and her refusal to ratify or even give effect to the three civil war amendments to the Constitution.

Trees that yield Bayard and DuPont timber come, of course, from France. Last May Day in the Palace of Versailles, before that statue standing to the right of the court of honor, lay four red roses, one rose for each hundred years since the fairest oak of French chivalry fell shattered in battle. Thus did France honor her beloved chevalier, Pierre Terrail Bayard. Quaint; but quainter still the honoring of this soldier's memory by those who had felt so often his lance and blade—upon whose soil he died. Great Bayard fêtes were held in Italy....This was the ancestor of James Asheton Bayard, first American of the name.

The most conspicuous DuPont of France was Pierre Samuel de Nemours, editor, economist, educator, statesman. A stubborn Royalist in a time of turning and overturning, his life became a succession of captures and escapes, long uncomfortable periods of hiding, then recapture and fresh escape. Always under the shadow of the guillotine, he finally picked up his family and fled to America, to the green shores of peaceful Delaware. Hardly had he settled in the United States when the "jacobin" President, Thomas Jefferson, recognizing his eminence, sent him to Napoleon with "an unofficial threat against the French occupation of Louisiana." Sweet joy to the old Royalist, this act of putting even so tiny a fly in the ointment of the usurper.

James Asheton Bayard was already quite at home in the new world. He represented Delaware in the National Legislature, and his wife was the daughter of Governor Richard Bassett. Though a Federalist, he cast the deciding vote in the electoral college (on the thirty-sixth ballot) for Jefferson—thus defeating the enigmatic Burr.

E. I. DuPont was as successful in business as his father, S. P. DuPont, had been eminent in economic philosophy. Noticing the poor quality of gunpowder made in the United States, he undertook, just outside of Wilmington, Delaware, to manufacture good explosives. The degree of his success is evidenced today by a quarter billion dollar corporation, E. I. DuPont de Nemours & Company. While not the Niagara of American business success, it has undoubtedly helped the DuPonts in making an important splash in national politics and in saturating completely the Republicanism of Delaware.

With the advent of civil war the DuPonts began again to serve directly the country of their asylum. Admiral S. F. DuPont, grandson of Jefferson's unofficial envoy to Napoleon, took what now appears to have been the side of the angels, and laid about him like a good angel throughout the war. In 1861, a great-grandson, H. A. DuPont, was graduated from West Point at the head of his class. Twice brevetted for gallantry in action, he was awarded the Congressional Medal of Honor. Three times the Legislature of Delaware elected him to the United States Senate, but on one occasion he was not seated.

And now it is T. Coleman DuPont, who, following an appointment in 1921 by Governor William D. Denny and a defeat at the hands of Thomas F. Bayard in 1922, has just been elected by the people of Delaware United States Senator. Nearly six feet four inches tall and weighted to suit, not an ounce one way or the other, looking like an intellectual and mustached old eagle, he is the best DuPont of them all. His parents migrated to Kentucky, and he was born there on December 11, 1863. After graduating from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, he returned to Kentucky and the mining of coal. He filled, at one time or another, every job in or about a coal mine. He became a Knight of Labor. Living in Central City meant for him living in the hearts of the people of that tiny mining town. He loved his fellow-workers as they loved him, and he left only when he had outgrown every job in the region thereabout. Here are some of the occupations he later found: reorganization and presidency of E. I. DuPont de Nemours & Company, construction and proprietorship of the Equitable Building in New York, reorganization and direction of the Equitable Life Assurance Society. He became member for Delaware of the Republican National Committee, chairman of the Republican State Committee, trustee of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, adjutant general on the staff of three governors. And this recital is a short measure of the capacity of the junior senator from Delaware.

The senior senator, senior by two years' service, is Thomas F. Bayard. Mr. Bayard is a lawyer, but no politician. "I am too blunt," he says. Nor is he a business man. According to his friends, "Tom Bayard is just an old-fashioned gentleman; his business to serve the state—when asked." During a brief stay in New York City he served as assistant

corporation council, then as city solicitor of Wilmington. For ten years chairman of the Democratic State Committee, he was elected Senator in 1922 for both the short and the long terms. Mr. Bayard is the fifth Delaware Senator of his name and sixth *Delaware Senator of his lineage*.

His father, Thomas F. Bayard, was Secretary of State for President Cleveland, congressional leader of the Democratic Party, Senator from Delaware, first Ambassador of the United States to the court of St. James. Contemporary Republicans and Democrats alike saw in this man, and in Judge Gray, two men who, had they lived in any other "doubtful" State, would have been President, but Delaware is satisfied with their records as they stand.

Mr. Bayard's great-uncle, Richard Henry Bayard, was the first Mayor of Wilmington, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Delaware and a United States Senator. His grandfather and great-grandfather, both James Asheton Bayard, were elected Senators on the same ballot—one for the short term and one for the long. (Mr. Frelinghuysen, of New Jersey, was the third Senator of his family, and Simon and Don Cameron, father and son, both represented Pennsylvania in the upper house; but the Bayard case remains unique.) James Asheton, the elder, had earlier represented Delaware in the House and served there as Federalist leader. Acting on the advice of Hamilton, he bolted the Federalist party and cast the vote that made Jefferson President. He was a member of the American commission that made Treaty of Ghent following the war of 1812. And then what's more and worse, as Champ Clark would say, Mr. Bayard's great-great-grandfather, Richard Bassett, was both a Governor and Senator of Delaware.

Now there is the Adams record and the Harrison record, the Randolph and the Pinckney—all like Fujiyama, superb but extinct. The DuPont record may not equal, and the Bayard not exceed them—comparison is bootless—but clearly there is something for the eugenists, political scientists, and general critics of Democracy to ponder in dynastic Delaware.

A series of articles on the Universities of Spain is begun in the October *Nuestro Tiempo*, with José Delecto y Piñuelo's account of the University of Valencia, which includes a brief history of its origin, and an account of the library and archives which contain abundant documents of antiquity, particularly to those relating to the history of the university.

One reads in this month's installment of the articles on the cardinals of the Holy Roman Church appearing in *La Civiltà Cattolica* that "The Roman pontiffs have conceded at times to the civil government the right to present and to nominate some inferior ecclesiastic, *e. g.*, of the parishes, canons and at times, bishops, but have never given up the right of nominating cardinals. Bishops are in charge of the government of a particular church or of a diocese; Cardinals, on the other hand, share in the highest ministry and act as Councillors and Coadjutors to the Pope."

Little known Madagascar is described by E. Alexander Powell in "Through the Land of the Malagasy" in the December *Century*.

One Method of Teaching Problems of American Democracy

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Moorhead, Minnesota, is a small city of 7,600 population, located in the midst of an extensive agricultural area in the northwestern part of that state. For the past few years the average enrollment in the four high school grades has almost reached 400, the number in each of the junior and senior years being approximately seventy-five. Although the city's location is in an agricultural section, the enrollment of pupils from rural districts has never numbered more than 10 or 12 per cent. of the total enrollment,¹ because the courses offered have usually been those of an academic nature, and, consequently, of no appeal to most of the farm population. As a result the boys and girls usually attend high schools in villages nearby, where there are provisions made more nearly for their interests.

The method of teaching Problems of American Democracy discussed in this paper was begun in the fall of 1922. Up until that time the units of the social sciences offered in the junior and senior years had been American History for one semester, with one-half credit, and Civics for another half credit in the second semester, both required in the junior year; Sociology for one semester, with one-half credit, and Economics in the second semester, for the other half credit, both elective in either of the junior or senior years, usually in the senior. These four subjects were taught by the same teacher, who usually had three sections of American History and the Civics and two sections of Sociology and Economics, each in their respective semesters. If it so happened that there were not enough pupils to make two sections of these two subjects, the teacher was assigned some other subject as a fifth class.²

Investigation³ seemed to show that there was a great deal of overlapping in subject-matter, and repetition of material covered by the teacher and her classes. A topic such as the "immigration question" would be discussed by the teacher and practically the same pupils four different times during these last two years. If the angle of discussion these four times had been from a different viewpoint there would have been nothing alarming in this repetition, but such was not the case. A situation arose which is most likely duplicated in many other schools. Each time a topic was discussed the teacher had nothing different to offer other than she had offered in a previous discussion. And, then, remember that this topic appeared four times in those two years, and that what was true of the immigration question was true also of any other question of a socio-civic-economic-historical nature. But this situation was not entirely the fault of the teacher. With several different preparations to make each day, with scores of papers to mark and record, and with her hands full of work in a

multitude of extra-curricular activities, she had little time to look up new material each time a topic was brought up. The texts, too, used in each subject were of little help in differentiating the discussions, because it is surprising how texts in the various social sciences overlap in content material.⁴ Consequently, pupils who elected Sociology and Economics in either of the last two years of their schooling went through a great deal of repetition and rehashing of social science subject-matter. To the brighter pupils these two subjects were "pipe-courses" and in time became very popular for that reason.

It was, therefore, decided to combine these four subjects into two. A combined subject, American History and Civics, was made a requirement in the junior year, and Problems of American Democracy made an elective in the senior year only.⁵ The writer was given the responsibility of organizing the material for these two subjects, and in addition was given the duty of teaching the Problems course.

It might be well right here to say a word regarding the division of subject-material for each of these subjects before going into the detailed discussion of the Problems work. To American History and Civics was given all matter dealing with the topics of American History, and all civic problems dealing with national and state government and politics. An entire résumé of the subject-material and methods of this course would require an article by itself. All that can be said here is that the attempt was made to teach these national and state civic problems in their so-called "natural setting" in American History. Hence, a discussion of national government and its functions best fits in where history discusses the period of the formulation of the Constitution; that of state government and its functions in the period when states' rights was the burning question; party government and its ramifications in that part of our history when political parties were so evidently forming and growing, and so on. The civic problems of local governments were placed in the Problems of American Democracy course. Just how this material was worked out will be shown shortly. From this it can be seen that all the civic material, usually included in a traditional civics course, was actually covered in these two new courses. There was, therefore, no loss in civics. In fact, the writer believes that there was a gain; namely, that the discussion of the local civics offered in the senior year was enriched by a social and economic viewpoint that had previously never been given to that subject.⁶ With this general idea of the differentiation of subject-material for both courses in mind, the more detailed discussion of the Problems work will follow.

First of all, no textbook as such was placed in the hands of the pupils. The organization of the work centered around an outline of topic material brought together by the writer. Part of this outline was the result of some undergraduate study and was based a great deal upon H. C. Hill's *Community Life and Civic Problems*. The outline itself has been continually changing from year to year, as further study has been made, and most likely will continue to do so as long as the subject is taught in this way. Instead of handing pupils a textbook at the beginning of the fall term, they were each given a notebook, which included a supply of paper and a mimeographed copy of the main point and details of the first section of the outline. These mimeographed sheets were handed to the pupils at various times during the year. As soon as one topic was finished and the class was ready for the next that part of the outline that followed was given out. Whenever subject-material was being discussed that was not covered in the references, copies were mimeographed, and these were added to the notebook. Thus, by the end of the year this mimeographed outline, plus notes taken by the pupils and other material, all hereafter described, became the textbook, or, at least, it became a book to which pupils could turn when there was need of review.

But before going into further detail regarding the method of handling the work, it will be best to outline the arrangement of topics and problems. The discussion that follows can be more easily understood at times by direct reference to the outline. The outline given here, it must be remembered, simply gives main topic headings, and many of the details, which go into the pupils' outline, are therefore omitted.

OUTLINE OF THE MOORHEAD PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY COURSE

- I. Introduction.
 - A. Meaning of Problems of American Democracy.
 - B. Aims of such a course.
 - C. What is going to be done this year.
 - D. How to study your lesson.
- II. The Family.
 - A. Definitions and classifications.
 - B. Historical development of the family.
 - C. What the family does for us.
 - D. Home and what it means.
 - E. Aspects of family life today and dangers.
 - F. Juvenile delinquency.
 - G. Marriage and divorce.
- III. Myself and My Relations to Others.
 - A. My needs.
 - B. Interdependence of myself upon others.
 - C. My rights.
 - D. My duties.
 - E. The conflict between rights and duties.
 - F. Patriotism.
 - G. My place in the community.
- IV. Religion and the Church.
 - A. Meaning of religion and church.
 - B. The development of religious beliefs.
 - C. The development of the modern church.
 - D. Services of the church.
 - E. The problems of the church.
- V. The School and Education.
 - A. What is education and why have schools connected with it?
 - B. Need of Education.
 - C. Purposes and aims of education.
 - D. The American Public School and Public School System.

1. History and development of the high school.
2. Secondary education in Europe.
- E. Control and support of education.
- F. Cost of education.
 1. Public.
 2. College.
- G. Value of an education.
- H. What should schools teach?
 1. My idea of a proper course of study.
 - I. Our illiterate population.
 1. Immigration.
 - a. Nature of.
 - b. Naturalization.
 - c. Restriction.
 2. The negro.
 - a. Just where is the problem?
 - b. What can be done with it?
 - VI. The Community.
 - A. Meaning of community.
 1. Rural and urban communities.
 - B. Factors determining the location of a community.
 - C. History of the local community.
 - D. Problems facing any community.
 - E. Government.
 1. Purposes of government.
 2. Local government.
 - a. Township.
 - b. County.
 - c. Village and city.
 3. Special reports on state and national government and their problems.
 4. Representative government.
 5. Taxation.
 - F. Community growth and planning.
 1. City planning.
 2. Arrangement of streets.
 3. City zoning.
 4. Civic beauty.
 5. Housing.
 - G. Communication and Transportation.
 1. General discussion of the problem.
 2. City transportation problems.
 - a. Public utilities.
 - H. Protection of health.
 1. The health of the individual.
 2. The health of the community.
 3. Safeguarding the health of the community.
 - a. Control and prevention of disease.
 - b. Inspection of food.
 - c. Drug and liquor traffic.
 - d. Regulation of working hours and conditions.
 - e. Water supply.
 - f. Disposal of wastes.
 4. Recreation.
 - a. Need of and agencies.
 - b. Amusements and standards.
 - I. Protection from accidents.
 1. Mining and industrial.
 2. Railroad.
 3. Traffic.
 - J. Protection from fire.
 1. Figures and causes.
 2. Firefighting.
 3. Education and laws.
 - K. Protection from crime.
 1. Necessity of law and order.
 2. Classification of crime and criminals.
 - a. Change in the nature of crime.
 3. Causes of crime.
 4. The police force.
 5. Punishment.
 - a. Prison reform.
 - b. Capital punishment.
 - L. Protection of the handicapped.
 1. The defectives and the dependent.

- 2. Poverty and pauperism.
- 3. Indoor and outdoor relief.
- 4. Charity.
 - a. Wise and unwise charity.
- VII. Man's Struggle for a Living.
 - A. Work.
 - B. Production.
 - 1. Factors of.
 - 2. Types of.
 - 3. Reasons for.
 - C. Natural resources of the United States.
 - 1. What are they?
 - 2. Conservation of our natural resources.
 - a. Land.
 - b. Natural beauty.
 - c. Fish and game.
 - d. Water power.
 - D. The development of the present industrial situation.
 - 1. Work and industry in the time before machinery.
 - 2. The Industrial Revolution.
 - 3. The factory system.
 - 4. Specialization in industry.
 - 5. Large scale production.
 - 6. Modern business organization.
 - E. Labor and its problems.
 - 1. Distribution of wealth.
 - 2. The labor class.
 - 3. Industrial warfare.
 - 4. What is the solution for the labor problem?
 - F. The employer and the workmen.
 - 1. The employers' viewpoint.
 - 2. Profit sharing.
 - 3. Pensions and insurance in industry.
 - 4. Welfare work.
 - 5. The co-operative movement.
 - 6. Unemployment.
 - 7. Child labor.
 - 8. Women in industry.
 - G. Distribution of individual incomes.
 - 1. Standard of living.
 - 2. Income—wages.
 - 3. Distribution of incomes in the United States.
 - 4. Thrift and savings.
 - H. Exchange.
 - 1. Why men exchange goods.
 - a. Money.
 - 2. United States money.
 - 3. Credit and its uses.
 - 4. Banks and their services.
 - 5. The United States Banking System.
- VIII. National and International Problems.
 - A. Modern finance.
 - B. Foreign trade.
 - C. Socialism.
 - D. Peace and reconstruction.

All assignments were made at the beginning of the period in the form of problems; that is, whenever there was need for an assignment. These assignments were so made that at all times there were some groups at work on different topics, these groups being in the form of committees. Each committee had a chairman, and he, or she, was individually responsible for the report by the committee. Each individual in that committee had his own responsibility for any work assigned to him. These problems were reported on from time to time as the work developed. Each period, it will be seen, was not therefore a recitation period. Sometimes it simply became a laboratory period for study, under the direction of the committee chairmen and the teacher, with the teacher staying

away most of the time and only entering the scene when necessity dictated that he should.

The problem assignment was worked out in a series of questions, at the close of which was added a list of references with pages. The answers to the questions usually could be found in the readings; sometimes they were found right in the community itself; at other times the answer could only be arrived at from the pupils' own experiences; and sometimes the answers could not be found anywhere except in the class itself after a series of "development" questions or lecture by the teacher.

The function of the class notebook can now easily be shown. Instructions to the pupils at the beginning of the year were that they could place the answers to any number of the questions in the notebook. However, each day one or two or three questions dealing with more important parts of the material to be developed were asterisked, and it was required that the answers to these asterisked questions be placed in the notebook. In addition to this material, there was sometimes special material developed in class, and time was always given toward the end of the period to allow pupils to copy this into their books. Then from time to time entirely new material was given by the teacher in actual lecture form, notes being taken by the pupils on the more important items. As these notebooks became larger early parts of them were filed in the teacher's office, where they were always easy of access for review or other study. Frequent check-ups were made to see that pupils kept on the job. This was easily done without taking up too much time of the teacher. Sometime during the class period, usually at the beginning immediately following the assignment, the pupils were asked to open up their books at a certain topic or topics, and the teacher walked up and down the aisles, a glance telling whether or not the pupil had done the work. These check-ups were never given any preliminary announcement. Sometimes they occurred every day for a week or so at a time; then again days, maybe a week, would go by before notebooks would be examined. It was very seldom that any careless work was found, and that only among the type of pupils who always were doing careless work. A great deal of credit was given for neat and systematic notebook work, and most of the pupils responded to that incentive.

Although pages in references were almost invariably assigned, and although pupils were held responsible for reading material, the attempt always was made to base the work upon the pupils' own experiences in the home and community. In class work the thought always was to bring in the reading material only through such gradual development. This gradual approach was even attempted in the making up of the outline itself. The pupils' first experiences are with the family; he then comes more into a realization of himself as an individual; the contacts with the church, school, and community, followed later by his working for a living, all come in a somewhat natural sequence; and the outline was worked out with that sequence in mind. In addition to the gen-

eral reading each member of the class was assigned, in rotation, some short special report. Some topic that was not available in all of the readings, or which was rather more important than any of the others, was assigned for special report. Usually every assignment had some such report, and in this way more detailed information was secured on many topics which otherwise would have been passed by. Then it was also the aim of the teacher to bring into the discussion each day some entirely new material from his own experience and study in "advanced" readings. Whenever possible this was done through questions leading up to his contribution; more often simply by lecture. In fact, some days the entire period was given over to lecture, for, with an outline so comprehensive as the one listed, it would be impossible to cover in the regular school year all of the topics treated by this problem form, nor would it be desirable. Materials of a general nature introductory to specific topics were covered by lecture. The entire topic of Communication and Transportation can be used as an illustration. In this topic pupils took part in recitation discussion only of those points dealing with local city transportation problems. Topics which were in the main review from some other course, and which were included in the work as connecting links in various parts of the outline, were also sometimes given as lectures, more often as special reports by pupils. As an illustration of the former the city water supply and disposal of wastes can be given, and an illustration of the latter is that portion of the outline dealing more specifically with government. Right after the finish of the class discussion of local government a day was taken when special reports were heard on state and national government topics, such as the power of the executive, the senate, and the like. This method of handling accomplished three things: (1) Enabled the pupils to link up these topics, previously taken in some other subject, with topics being discussed in the Problems Course, and thereby prevent waste of time by overlapping by long discussion; (2) enabled the class to cover ground faster and to give them more time for detailed study on other topics, and in the end cover more ground; (3) gave the class practice in note-taking and special report work, both oral and written, thereby giving those who go to college some practice in types of work they will have later on in their school experience.

A by-product, one might say, of the special report work was its correlation with the work in senior English. Twice each month those taking Problems were required to select their theme topic from a list suggested by the Problems teacher. English and composition were graded by the English teacher, and Problems content by the Problems teacher. This phase of the work had some very good results, working to the advantage of both subjects.

To make the idea still more clear, it might be well to take one topic through the assignment to illustrate how the work is done. Topic F, Juvenile Delinquency, under II, the Family, is a typical one:

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

1. Define juvenile delinquency, juvenile crime, juvenile criminal, juvenile court.
- * 2. Why do young people commit so many crimes?
- * 3. How can this situation be remedied?
4. Describe a juvenile court. Show difference from ordinary courts.
- * 5. What is probation? Why is it used?
6. What is a probation officer and what are his duties?
7. (Special Report.) How are juvenile offenders taken care of in Moorhead?

Hill, 322-23. Hughes, 121. Hughes (C), 370-71. Towne, 229-30. B. & P., 496-97. B. & P. (R), 268. Adams, 284-85. M. & O., 557. Dunn, 417-18. M. & G., 417-18. Williamson, 201-02.

It will be noted that questions 2, 3, and 5 are asterisked and are therefore to be answered in the notebook. Question 7 is a special report and one pupil had the responsibility of interviewing the municipal judge who handled all of the juvenile cases. The teacher was able to offer quite a bit from his own experience in this topic, because he had at one time done some probation officer work as a part of his training. In larger cities, of course, trips could be made to a juvenile court, where, at least, the pupils could get an idea of what one looks like, and in case permission could be had, to see one in actual action. It was to be regretted that this type of experience could not be had in Moorhead, but in lieu of this the teacher's lecture, together with picture material, somewhat made up the deficiency. It is admitted that many lessons would not work quite as ideally as this one does, but those that did not were very few and far between.

In general, this paper has described in some detail just how the teaching of Problems of American Democracy was attempted in Moorhead. Looking back over two years, it can be said that, for the most part, the results of the work were rather successful. There was, of course, a big difficulty right at the start of overcoming the pupils' awkwardness in studying lessons without one textbook. It usually took about four weeks for them to get themselves accustomed to study under this new condition. To help them as much as possible the teacher spent the entire period of the first class meeting in a discussion of what the new work was, what it was going to be, its aims, etc. (See I in the outline.) As the first assignment the class was given a mimeographed sheet, "What Is Going to Be Done in This Course"; they were instructed to read and study it carefully, and after this study to write out a short paper, "How I am Going to Study My Lesson in Problems of American Democracy." The lesson on the second day was a discussion of these study ideas of the pupils, together with the development of a more scientific method. At the end of this second period the members of the class were handed a mimeographed sheet again, this one being detailed instructions as to the method of preparing the lesson. Both of these mimeographed sheets were placed at the beginning of the notebook and kept there as a constant reminder of what each individual was supposed to do. In this way the difficulty of becoming accustomed to new conditions was

made a great deal easier. The material contained in these two mimeographed sheets follows:

WHAT IS GOING TO BE DONE IN THIS COURSE

1. There will be no textbook handed out. All study will be done by reading assigned references which will be found on the reserve shelf in the library, in encyclopedias, yearbooks and other books that may be assigned from time to time.

2. Instead of a textbook, you will receive a notebook. In this notebook you will place notes and other material, regarding which you will receive instructions from time to time.

3. Assignments will be made from time to time in the form of problems. After the problem has been assigned, you will be given certain questions regarding that problem, and with these questions you will find pages in references that deal with that problem.

4. You will place these questions in your notebook and keep them there, because they will be of help to you in getting your lesson. In the study of your lesson you can place the answers to as many of the questions as you like into your notebook, all of them, if you so desire, but this will not be required. In every assignment, however, there will be certain questions asterisked, and the answers to these asterisked questions must be placed in the notebook, because they are important key questions and you will need them in your further study.

5. Every day in class there will be new material developed, and whenever it is indicated you will place this also in the notebooks. Then at other times the teacher will give you other material in lecture form, and some of this will also go into the notes you have.

6. Pen or pencil may be used at your discretion. The only requirement made is that you keep your notes neatly and systematically. No requirement is made as to form, either, except that it will be best to place each new assignment on a new page. Then the answers to those questions can be placed directly beneath the questions, and there will also be space left for the new material developed in class.

7. Be sure to keep your notebooks up to date, because they will be the only reference you will have in case of tests or examinations.

8. Ever-so-now-and-then your notebooks will be examined. There will be no notice given as to when these occurrences will take place. That means, therefore, that you must not get behind in keeping up your notes.

9. Every day some member of the class will be asked to look up some special item for reporting to the class. These will be very short and will be given to all members of the class in alphabetical order. Always have these reports ready to give, because the discussion in class will usually hinge upon the material brought out in the report.

10. From time to time written reports will be asked for. These are always to be written in ink, papers folded, names placed on the outside and handed in at the time set.

11. Twice each month the topics for your themes in English IV will be chosen from a list of topics selected by the Problems teacher.

12. A great deal of credit will be given to you if you pitch in and show that you are not afraid of work. It will be difficult, at first, because the work in this class will be handled differently from that of your other classes, but the proper spirit will do a lot toward helping you get started.

HOW TO PREPARE YOUR LESSON IN THE PROBLEMS COURSE

A. Preliminaries.

1. Have a definite time each day at which to study the lesson. The best time is immediately after the class period.
2. Have all your materials, that is, notebook, assignment and reference, on hand ready for use.
3. When you have all this ready, get to work and keep your mind on it. **CONCENTRATE.**

B. The Procedure for Study.

1. First of all always review the previous day's lesson. Do this because in this way you will pick up the

threads that will connect up with the work you are preparing for the day's lesson.

2. Read over the questions in the assignment.
 - a. This will give you an idea of what the lesson is about.
 - b. Pay particular attention to the asterisked questions.
3. Read through all the pages of any assignment, first of all.
 - a. This will give you a general idea of what is in those pages.
 - b. Then go over the same pages more carefully, trying to find the answer to any of the questions in the assignment and putting down as many notes as you desire.
 - c. Be sure to put down the answers to the asterisked questions.
4. Do as many references as possible in this way, until you have found the answer to the questions asked. Remember, it will be very seldom that you will find the answer to all of the questions in any one assignment.
5. Now read over and study the notes you have taken, and in that way remember the important points of the lesson.
- C. If you follow out the above procedure every day, you ought to have no trouble in your recitations.

Of course, the objection will be raised that a regular teacher with all of her other preparations cannot go into such detail, as this method of teaching seems to demand. The writer disagrees, however. The teacher with the proper background preparation and with proper interest will have no trouble. The best method probably would be to have a regular text upon which to base the work and to hold the teacher's feet to the ground. But there again would be the danger that the work would soon simmer down to the cut-and-dried assignment of a few pages every day and the recitation from that. The writer believes that the benefit from such a course as this Problems course comes through the proper approach, and that the best approach is that which appeals to the pupil's own experiences in the home and community, and that the best way to secure this appeal is not to use the one textbook. The surest way to assure one's self that the pupils are not confining themselves to one text is not to give them that text. Place the group of different texts upon the library shelves and through proper assignments let the pupils find what is wanted. That will assure varied activity on their part and will make the work more interesting and instructive. As far as the work in the Problems of American Democracy is concerned, such is the attitude of the writer.

For the benefit of those who may be interested, a list of the books used as references in Moorhead is added. All of these were used at some time or other during the year. Some were used almost every day, and others not so much. Those of greatest value are asterisked.

- Adams. *A Community Civics*. Scribners.
 Ashley. *The New Civics*. Macmillan.
 * Bliss. *New Encyclopedia of Social Reform*. Funk & Wagnalls.
 * Burch. *American Economic Life*. Macmillan.
 * Burch & Patterson. *American Social Problems*. Macmillan. *Problems of American Democracy*. Macmillan.
 Dictionary. Both the Century and Webster.
 Dunn. *Community Civics for City Schools*. D. C. Heath.
Community Civics and Rural Life. D. C. Heath.
 * Elwood. *Sociology and Modern Social Problems*. American Book Co.
Encyclopedia.

Fairchild. *Essentials of Economics*. American Book Co.
 Faubel. *Principles of Economics*. Harcourt, Brace.
 Greenan & Meredith. *American Democracy*. Houghton, Mifflin.
 * Hill. *Community life and Civic Problems*. Ginn & Co.
 Hughes. **Community Civics*. Allyn and Bacon. *Economic Civics*. Allyn and Bacon. **Problems of American Democracy*. Allyn and Bacon. *Textbook of Citizenship*. Allyn and Bacon.
 * Lapp. *Economics and the Community*. Century Co.
 * Lewis. *Citizenship*. Harcourt, Brace.
 * Morehouse and Graham. *American Problems*. Ginn & Co.
 * Munro and Ozane. *Social Civics*. Macmillan.
 * Towne. *Social Problems*. Macmillan.
 Tufts. *The Real Business of Living*. Henry Holt.
 Williamson. *Problems of American Democracy*. D. C. Heath.
 * Yearbooks.

NOTES

¹ This situation probably will not continue any longer. Beginning with the present fall term provision has been made for a four-year course in Agriculture. It is hoped that this will attract more farm pupils.

² The school day consists of seven periods. Each regular teacher meets five classes every day.

³ This investigation was made before the writer came to Moorhead.

⁴ The writer is now bringing together statistics, as a part of his thesis material, showing this overlapping of content material in various texts.

⁵ It is still an elective, but will become a constant as soon as the material is more completely organized.

⁶ That is, in Moorhead.

⁷ This notebook is one of the looseleaf variety, and was picked because its binding is such that it keeps pages tightly bound and is practically fool-proof from torn pages. Both writing and mimeographed paper was furnished specially punched.

History in its Relation to the Junior High School

Problem of Selecting and Organizing Material

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WHAT IS THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

The more progressive schools of the country are striving to evolve a new environment, to perfect a new educational medium. This has been called the junior high school. One writer refers to it as the junior high school "idea." The name was first used some fifteen years ago. The school systems which have contributed to its development have placed their own interpretation on what the junior high school is and what it should accomplish and they will probably continue to do so. Its aims and purposes, its very nature, have been variously described and characterized.

The idea of a junior high school did not suddenly occur to any one. It is rather the result of the slow evolution of the American educational system. Neither is it altogether of American origin. The name applied to this phase of educational development, however, is peculiar to American conditions. It was the outcome in part of three factors. Men appeared like Dr. Charles Eliot, who saw education not as a piecemeal proposition made up of separate segments, stages, or cycles, but as something continuous and continuing. The weak spots in this continuous and continuing process revealed themselves in startling fashion. This was particularly true of Grades VII to IX.

The passing years also brought with them greater and greater pressure upon the schools to prepare their clientele for the responsibilities of citizenship as the suffrage was extended and the destinies of the nation were intrusted to a larger and larger body politic. A grammar school education, or its equivalent, might satisfy conditions which prevailed a generation or more ago, but it no longer sufficed in the opening years of the twentieth century.

Society not only has become more democratic with the passing years; it has become more complex. It now makes more insistent demands upon the individual for an understanding of his relations to his own community and to the larger units of which it is an integral part. No longer do the older curricula or the older types of school organization satisfy. The individuals who form this huge body politic, which has been intrusted with the difficult task of settling its own problems under the present democratic order, must be assisted in adjusting themselves to this new order. Individual capacities must be ascertained as never before and individual needs appraised and met. Education must develop toward securing higher efficiency for each individual. With the progress of the testing movement and the development of educational and psychological criteria means are at hand to make possible a better adjustment of the pupil to the school and therefore of the citizen to society. It was this combination of circumstances which gradually gave rise to the junior high school.

There are at least three things about this new educational medium which are of peculiar significance to the teacher of history:

1) The idea of continuity sought and represented by the junior high school. Subjects are no longer to be taught as "blocks." More attention must be paid to the idea of a continuous program—a program which is closely integrated with what follows as well as with what precedes and is made up of parts which are nicely dovetailed together. History, if it be taught over a period of years, must be taught so progressively that any new work done is recognized as a definite step forward, a projection into a new field or an attack upon a new method, or both.

2) The next point to be considered is the responsibility resting upon the junior high school for sup-

plying those citizenship needs which have brought the junior high school idea to the fore. A citizenship program is an outstanding feature of the junior high school, but not the kind of a program which finds its principal expression in a salute to the flag or in an effusive patriotism. It is the kind of program which seeks to fit the individual to the place which he is to assume in society, one which stresses the duties and responsibilities which devolve upon him in a highly organized industrial and democratic society.

3) Finally, the junior high school curriculum is permeated throughout with the idea that the values of education must be proved in terms of an actual fitting of a boy or girl the better for the task ahead by the use of definite subject-matter, or by the application of the special methods peculiar to the subjects of study, or through worth-while school activities.

Or, looked at from another point of view, the changes which have come to pass center about the curriculum, on the one hand, or what the school teaches and does, and the pupil, on the other, his interests, his capacities and his attainments. Child study has revealed much that was either unknown or but imperfectly understood as to child life, and with a better understanding and a better general handling of the adolescent child there naturally follow revolutionary changes in content and method and in contact between teacher and pupil.

The social studies as a group of subjects revealing life in its manifold relationships will naturally play an important rôle in a medium where the socialization of the child and the development of his peculiar tastes and aptitudes are important considerations. This is particularly true of the adolescent. If the junior high school brings in its train, as it has done in so many communities, a new school building, with special equipment as evidence of the need for a special environment for the adolescent, there are bound to follow profound modifications in the teaching of subject-matter and the relation between the subject-matter and the pupil to be taught.

There are other aspects of the junior high school upon which there are wide differences of opinion, such as the question of the flexibility of the program, promotion by subject or by grade, and similar matters. Although the solution of these is likely to affect the handling of the special subjects, these may be ignored in the present effort to single out the broader lines of development associated with this change.

How, then, does the task of the junior high school differ essentially from that of the teacher in the elementary or senior high school? The elementary school is ministering to the elementary needs of the children there, training them in those skill subjects which they can best master at this stage. Although there is no disposition to underestimate the importance of this part of the task, it is always subordinated to a larger objective, that of bringing the child into a very real and vital relation with his environment. Its program and methods are directed toward that socialization of the individual which will enable him the more readily to find his proper niche and ade-

quately fill it. The working out of group projects is a characteristic of the upper grades of the elementary school. Aside from what are termed the tool subjects the materials used are presented not so much as separate subjects as media for making the acquaintance of a new and strange world. This is often the method used in handling the tool subjects. This acquaintance is necessarily somewhat limited. The pupil is merely standing on the threshold of this world. But as he makes its acquaintance his interests widen until by the time the junior high school is reached the great fields of human knowledge begin to have an interest for him as alluring subjects of investigation and as stepping-stones to a fuller and larger life among his fellows. His interests are no longer limited in terms of time and space.

When the senior high school is reached he has begun to select special roads to be followed; his interests have begun to crystallize, and he sees a path for himself leading toward a goal more or less specific as he masters certain fields of knowledge which enable him to attain it. All this is but the restatement of what the junior high school recognizes as it stands at the crossroads between the experiences of childhood and the dawning consciousness of manhood and womanhood.

WHAT IS HISTORY?

Turning now from the medium in which the teacher is to do his work to the subject to be taught, what history shall be taught in the junior high school, and what principles shall guide the teacher in his attempt to organize the field selected? An examination of existing courses of study prior to the advent of the junior high school reveals a certain unanimity of opinion as to what to select for the upper grammar grades. The differences arise when it is a matter of organizing this for classroom use.

With the better grasp of the general educational problem confronting a democracy like our own, which gave rise to the junior high school, there has also come a better appreciation of history. As has been pointed out so clearly by Professor Henry Johnson, it is a matter of some moment for a teacher to distinguish carefully at the outset between the aims of history and the actual values attaching to the study of the subject. If specific aims be accepted for the history taught, its values are already determined. They are really predetermined. These may be the lesser values attaching thereto rather than the greater. This may be illustrated by a reading of the Communist Manifesto. The introduction to that document is in itself a revelation of what we get when we make our selection of subject-matter on such a basis. Those facts have been selected from the field of history, which seem to prove the inevitability of a struggle between the classes, forcing its readers (as its authors intended) to the apparently logical conclusion that there is but one solution for such a situation, and that is socialism. Marx and Engels argue their case like skillful advocates addressing a jury. The history of the writing of history in the nineteenth century reveals clearly the fact that there are a great many varieties of history, so-called, ranging all the way

from histories reflecting an admiration for the political genius of the Greeks, as it was revealed in the days of Pericles, with a thinly veiled desire on the part of the writer to interest his own age in such democratic endeavors, to the cold, impartial, rather heavy, and to some, dull conception of a James Schouler. In a brilliant essay James Truslow Adams insists that much would be gained if every age would make a fresh study of the past in the light of its own environment and interests, not in order to make the environment of today more intelligible, but rather to bring the added wealth of its learning and experience to bear upon that which is past and give it that freshness of treatment which makes for a better picture of bygone times. He has illustrated the value of such study in his two volumes, "Revolutionary New England" and "The Founding of New England."

The teacher of history must keep pace with these unfolding concepts of the subject to appreciate its greatest values, especially if he would realize these in the education of adolescent children. If history as such has not a special, individual contribution of its own to make at this, the most critical stage in the education of children, there is little excuse for retaining it in the curriculum. If it is by doing violence to this body of human knowledge that it is assigned a place (by courtesy) in the curriculum, let it be not dignified by the name of history.

THE "ELEMENTS" IN HISTORY.

History, consisting as it does of related facts, contains certain elements peculiar to itself. These elements must exist in conjunction or they cease to be history. History in the junior high school must be something more than a body of factual or informational material about times that are past. The cement which holds this body of facts together is the element or idea of continuity, but with this is the idea, or the element of change, which helps to make these related facts—"historical" facts. Two elements at least remain, the element of time and the element of place. Children have no time sense, say some. A time sense cannot be taught. Psychological history has been set over against chronological history. If these contentions be granted, then history has no place as history where it is impossible to inculcate a sense of time. It is the passage of time, it is the time setting of facts which makes them history. Chronological history, so-called, is taboo in some quarters. If by this is meant an elimination of the idea of the sequence of time and a neglect of the effects of the passing of time on human affairs, what remains ceases to be history at all.

The facts of history are localized facts. There is a place element involved which attaches them to a definite environment, be it spot, country, or locality. Men and women moving in and about a specific environment are the subject of study. They do not move in space, neither do they exist in vacuo. The influence of this environment upon them and their efforts to shape it form an integral part of this concept of the past which we call history.

This suggests still another aspect of these facts which should prove helpful in selecting and organizing them for children. Some of them are much more concrete than others. All have to do with human beings moving in or attached to a specific environment and influenced by or subject to the element of time. Some of these facts have to do with the mere externals of the life of these individuals; others have to do with such immaterial, intangible things as thoughts and emotions. Professor Johnson recognizes three groups of such factual material: 1) Those facts having to do with physical human beings and their physical environment, 2) those embodying human words and human actions, and, finally, 3) those representing thoughts, feelings, and resolutions. Our first contacts in childhood with the world around us are through the external and the material. It is only gradually that we apprehend that which is more or less abstract and immaterial. In fact, it interests us but little until we have reached a certain maturity; that is, until we have had certain experiences, actual or vicarious, to make it intelligible.

GRADING THE HISTORY MATERIALS FOR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS.

With the emphasis upon continuity, which the junior high school has brought with it, there has come an imperative demand that the materials of instruction be more carefully graded. "Every new step in history instruction"—if there are to be successive steps, or years, or grades, as the case may be—"should be a step forward in the subject."¹ There cannot be a wasteful duplication of subject and effort, as this runs counter to the junior high school idea. In a medium which recognizes as never before that the goal of instruction consists in eliminating as far as possible all gaps "between the pupil's knowledge and the life he enters on leaving school," his historical knowledge must not be allowed to lag behind other subjects. Hence, the insistence that "the fully equipped American citizen of the post-war period must have some definite knowledge of world affairs, as well as of strictly national affairs."

The junior high school recognizes, as has not been the case heretofore, the natural widening of the child's interests and outlook so characteristic of this stage of his development. Hence, the necessity of meeting with adequate material this widening horizon. The narrow, provincial attitude which so often accompanies the presentation of certain parts of his own country's history must be abandoned if there is to be a proper adjustment of subject-matter to pupil tastes and interests. The adolescent child also responds more readily to activities than to the more formal types of textbook work. The junior high school seeks to utilize this interest and this response. Activities which heretofore have been looked upon as extra-curricular are found to be the best possible media through which to acquaint him with certain fields of knowledge.

The boy or girl of junior high school age is essentially interested in action. He is also a bundle of emotions. The eye and the emotion furnish the par-

ticular media through which he really becomes conscious of the world about him. Human beings, their looks, their words, their acts, their environments, are for him the realities of the past. They are, in fact, the realities of the present. The principal task of the teacher of history is that of reconstructing for him a vivid, realistic picture of bygone times, places, and peoples. The philosophy underlying it all may be more or less beyond him or be only dimly perceived. It is a challenge which he will appreciate as a very real one if he is asked to call up out of the past its great figures decked out in their quaint clothes and the strange environment in which they moved, be it village or city street or countryside. If he would picture this past as it really was he will find himself forced to do some clear thinking, eliminating this and adding that, as he tries to get closer to the external features of this strange but fascinating world.

History, then, in the junior high school will consist primarily of a series of pictures, each carefully pieced together like a mosaic. Each child will create his own masterpiece. He "will paint the thing as he sees it." There will be no place for anything approaching a standardized version of these great episodes. The important consideration will be that each picture shall be a true mirror of human relationships. While he may call up for his purpose people long since dead and scenes long since forgotten, his picture is always a thing of life and action and movement, because he has injected himself into it, re-living its tense moments and re-enacting its thrilling episodes. It is never a "dead" canvas. Like the great artist he will create only the "speaking" likeness. Conventionalized maps will be resolved into real stage settings. They are no longer merely splotches of color, but teem with life and activity. There must be something of the movement and animation of the movie cartoon in these reproduction exercises if they are to secure that individual response which is so necessary to successful reconstruction. There must be careful analysis of textual or pictorial material to catch the salient points in the scene, and there must be a thoughtful, painstaking marshalling of details to form the completed picture, if it is to be something more than a hazy fleeting impression.

Careful thought must be given on the part of the teacher to the pictures selected for this "reconstruction" process. A few pictures can be carefully built up in this way if the necessary concrete material is supplied for the purpose. Much in the way of content must needs be omitted in order that there may be opportunity to realize the values attaching to the process itself. Let two members of a class try to present a word picture of some scene which they have witnessed, such as a session of a national convention, or the inauguration of a President, or even such a trivial happening as an automobile accident. As they note the details supplied or omitted and the different pictures which have been impressed upon the mind, they will begin to appreciate some of the difficulties involved in a faithful reconstruction of the past.

Other subjects, however, are in lively competition

with history in this junior high school cycle. The selection of materials in the field of history will be determined in part by the recognition accorded each of these related fields. The junior high school idea seems to point to a single unit in the field of the social studies (viz., history, geography, civics, and economics), rather than to any separate handling of history, geography, and civics by different teachers. (See article in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for November, 1924, pp. 356-360.) If this be the case, then there will be a careful integration of materials. The general plan of organization accepted must be one where the teacher is either presenting first history and then geography, or handling the same topic for its geographical implications and then for its historical values. In any case, he will endeavor to present these materials in such a way that the child gradually learns to evaluate social phenomena in terms of the special contributions of each of these fields to the sum total of human knowledge and what they teach us. Differences of practice there will be in fixing the relations of the materials involved, but the better the teacher's concept of history, or geography, or civics, as the case may be, the better will be the teaching and the handling of all these materials in a single unit.

The largest element in this composite unit will be that drawn from the fields of history, if the history be well taught and the idea of history already set forth be entirely apprehended. Professor James Harvey Robinson, in his collection of essays called "The New History," is describing the kind of organization toward which all sound instruction in these fields seems to point. No matter how worthy the educational aim, which may be accepted as a basis for selecting and relating these materials, any basis of selection which ignores the special contribution which each of these fields has to make to the sum total of knowledge tends to break up the subject-matter into fragments of information, is absolutely destructive of the subjects themselves, and makes impossible the application of the principles and suggestions set forth in this series of articles.

In conclusion, in testing materials for use in the junior high school and in organizing them for presentation, the result is to be judged by the extent to which the material reveals the true nature and inherent functions of history, the specific purposes served by the junior high school which are not incompatible with these, and the method proposed for handling this material in the classroom. This last consideration will be theme of the articles which follow.

Bibliographical Note

Four books have appeared describing the junior high school movement, all of them within the past five years. One of the first (1920) was "The Junior High School," by Professor T. H. Briggs. His book is based upon the result of questionnaires, personal visits and an examination of the literature in the field. Chapter V, on Special Functions, is especially valuable. Dr. J. K. Van Denburg has embodied some of the results of his experiences at the Speyer School in his "Junior High School Idea" (1922). Attention is directed to his Introduction and to Chapter I on the Junior

High School Idea. The most recent book, "Junior High School Education" (1924), by Professor C. O. Davis is the result of an intensive study of the movement since its beginnings and embodies present practice as gleaned from a variety of schools and school systems. Chapter I on What the Junior High School Is, and Chapter VI on What the Junior High School Should Accomplish are of special interest.

The citizenship values of history and their significance for children of junior high school age are discussed by Helen M. Madeley in "History as a School for Citizenship." She draws upon her experiences in various English schools, and her book is full of practical suggestions for the class teacher. Chapter I on the Need for Reconstruction, Chapter II on the Making of Citizenship, Chapter III on Citizenship and the Curriculum, and Chapter V on Raw Material are specially recommended. The first three chapters of Professor Henry Johnson, "The Teaching of History," are among the best in his volume and will repay reading many times. The titles are as follows: What History Is, The Problem of Grading History, and the Question of Aims and Values. Professor James Truslow Adams' essay, "History and the Lower Criticism," appeared in *The Atlantic Monthly*, Vol. CXXXII, pp. 308-317.

¹ Quoted from Preliminary Statement, Committee on History and Education for Citizenship in the Schools.

Notes on Periodical Literature

By GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

In the December *Forum*, Professor Albert Bushnell Hart condemns the Turkish Treaty, saying: "The main difficulty ...with the so-called Lausanne Treaty of the United States is that it is based upon supposed conditions and obligations and advantages which simply do not exist...The Turkish Republic...in spirit, in purpose, in its low opinion of western civilization and western diplomats, is just the same kind of thing as that Ottoman Empire which has been the enemy of civilization, Christianity, and government for six centuries" ("Making Friends with Unrighteousness"), while Edward Mead Earle defends the treaty, arguing that "Judged upon its own merits, the Treaty of Lausanne made no special defense...It is not intended to be a complete settlement of all Near Eastern questions...It is designed to resume diplomatic relations with Turkey which were broken by American participation in the Great War, and to re-define American rights and Turkish responsibilities....The objections raised are not so much objections to the treaty itself as to the Turkish Republic...the Turk is no better and no worse than the other Near Eastern peoples; ...he has been a common victim with them of an exaggerated Near Eastern nationalism and of a vicious Western imperialism....No one would...maintain that Mustapha Kemal has succeeded in perfecting democracy...But one can maintain that the Angora Government has made heroic efforts in the face of formidable obstacles to combat religious fanaticism, to sweep away outworn political and economic and social institutions and to promote the reconstruction of Turkey to the exclusion of all pan-Turanian and pan-Islamic programs" and calling his defense "Our Holier than Thou Policy."

"The real cause of the weakness of Liberalism, when every allowance has been made for the disastrous effect of recent squabbles and recent compromising alliances, may be summed up in precisely three words: 'the new elector'...The weakness of Liberalism at present consists in the fact that it is almost entirely without the sort of reserves of political force to which both the rivals can appeal. These reserves have scarcely any connection with the real merits of the contending creeds, and they are enormously powerful in the new electorate," says Stuart Hodgson, editor of the *London Daily News*, in an article on "Liberalism" in the November *Nineteenth Century*.

Lina Waterfield places the "Origins of Fascism" in "the fierce struggle of 1914-15, when Italy was wellnigh torn in two by neutralists and pro-war enthusiasts, deriving from her complex position as a former ally of the Central Powers, and from the fact that Rome was the seat of the Papacy, an international Power of great moral force which had many reasons for not being altogether on the side of the Allies." (*Fortnightly Review* for November.)

The desperate need of the Christians at Jerusalem is clearly evident from the terms made with the Venetian fleet, which came to Joppa in the summer of 1100. This was the first participation in the crusade by Venice. The Pisans had come with Dagobert, and because of the grant made to him by Godfrey of a quarter of Joppa, a Pisan colony was later established there. The Venetians sold their aid only at a high price. They knew the weakness of Dagobert and Godfrey, making it impossible for the latter to capture any of the important seaports without the aid of a fleet. They bargained to help the crusading hosts from June 24th to August 15, 1100, on condition that they should have a church and a market-place in every city both on the seashore and in the interior, which the Christians held or might conquer. If any cities were captured jointly by the Crusaders and the Venetians, the latter should have one-third of the booty in each city. If Tripolis should be taken, the booty should be equally divided, and the Venetians should have the whole city, in return for a small annual payment,...to the Church of the Holy Sepulchre....the Venetians should be exempted from all taxes in all cities in the possession of Jerusalem, and no noble should have the right of flotsam and jetsam with regard to the goods in any Venetian vessel," is one of the many interesting incidents set forth by Professor Dana Carleton Munro, in his "The Establishment of the Latin Kingdom at Jerusalem," which appears in the last issue of the *Sewanee Review*.

The starting point of R. H. Hodgkins', "The Beginning of the Year in the English Chronicle" (*English Historical Review* for October) is a statement made by the late Mr. Murray L. R. Beaven that the writer of the Alfredian chronicle did not begin his annalistic year at Christmas, but at the preceding Caesarian induction, that is, September 24th. Mr. Hodgkins' article discusses the commencement of the year in the annals of the half-century between 887 and 939.

While David M. Robinson's "Some Roman Terra-Cotta Savings Banks" is primarily of interest to archaeologists, the light it throws on social customs makes it valuable to the student of Ancient History.

"It is not without interest to tell the story of how the rector of Wearmouth became cardinal, pope and miscreant—how a sheriff's jury was summoned to say whether his church was hereby vacant—in spite of canon law and royal statute, and how Chief Justice Belknap more than thirty years before the famous statute of Henry V declared from the bench that a heretic forfeited his land 'and that this was the law,'" says Theodore F. T. Plunkett, and he tells the story in "The Case of the Miscreant Cardinal," which the autumn number of the *American Historical Review* publishes.

"One must be careful not to confuse the [election] outcomes in the two English-speaking countries, because there are extraordinary resemblances. In reality, while it went out of office and lost 40 seats, Labor actually fortified its real as contrasted with its accidental position in British politics" while "The efforts of the Progressives in the United States to replace the Democrats as the second political force was a complete failure," is one of the many points made by F. H. Simonds, who writes on "Elections in Europe and at Home," in the December *Review of Reviews*.

Paul Welsbach edits the private correspondence of John Adams and Thomas Jefferson in the December *Atlantic*, prefacing them with a brief commentary of his own under the title of "Reconciliation." "Curiously," he says, "not much attention has been given to this correspondence," yet "Nobody who has curiosity about the insides of two wise old heads should fail to find a lark in these letters."

Making the Story of Ancient Nations Relate to Present Life

BY MARGARET McLAUGHLIN, STANFORD UNIVERSITY.

The aim of social science today is to train the child so that he may be most efficient to himself and society.

The Commission which recently reported on the course of study for junior and senior high suggested the following program:

Grade	Subject
7	European History
8	American History
9	Civics
10	European History
11	American History
12	Problems of Democracy

In this paper I shall only attempt to deal with grade nine. It is far from my intention to disagree with the course of study outlined by the committee, but certain conditions make it almost impossible in many high schools.

Some of the obstacles are state requirements for accrediting high schools, influence of college entrance requirements on high school courses, the traditional habit of the small high schools in following certain standards, the lack of properly trained teachers, and inadequate supply of suitable text books. This last objection is serious in some states where uniform texts are used under the present financial stress.

To my mind, then, the problem of the social science teacher who goes into a school where ancient history is required and must be taught is twofold. In the first place, she must, by tact and example, demonstrate to the community, the school authorities, and administrators the need of a change in the traditional history course of the high school, and, secondly, she must present ancient history in such a manner to her ninth grade that they will meet the college requirements if necessary, and, at the same time, practice valuable lessons in citizenship.

I shall not try to put forth a plan for converting the different groups to the change, but will give some suggestions on securing civic co-operation in the ninth grade.

I. The general project is peace in the community and nation from a study of mistakes in the past.

This is then subdivided into twenty-one different problems, with some actual civic work in each one. The plan is in reality a combination of the project method and the study of the text.

The problems are:

1. Find the forces friendly and opposed to co-operation and peace in local city.

Civic work—Survey of local city—Time, 1 week.

- | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------|
| A. Home. | G. Farming. |
| B. Societies. | H. Manufacturing. |
| C. School. | I. Professions. |
| D. Foreign commerce. | J. Government. |
| E. Domestic commerce. | K. Business. |
| F. Banking. | L. Leaders. |

Individual work on this first assignment, but three or more people may be assigned the same topic.

2. Find the factors in Egypt which led to its civilization and decline.

Civic work—Mistakes made in Egypt and remedies which might be possible. Time, 1 week.

Group 1.

- a. Art.
- b. Religion.
- c. Leaders.

Group 2.

- a. Commerce.
- b. Government.
- c. Law.

Each group is to trace relationship of Egypt with present local city.

In connection with remedies do not forget remedies for some local conditions.

3. What did Babylonia, Phoenicia, and the Hebrews give to civilization? Why did they decline?

Civic work—Submit charts showing:

Group 1.

Comparison of treatment of crime then and today. Suggest methods of proving disorder in school.

4. What were the causes of the rise and fall of Assyrian industries and leaders?

Civic work—Time, 1 week.

Group 1.

Study of qualities of good leaders, with reports on same. Reports on comparison of wars with school or city disorders, with five suggestions for improvement.

Group 2.

Reports on comparison of wars with school or city disorders, with five suggestions for improvement.

All choose class leader who presents good qualities of a leader.

5. How was your local city government formed? Civic work—Simple survey of city government—Time, 1 week.

Group 1.

Leaders and their duties, with suggestions for improvement. System defects, with constructive plans for bettering conditions.

Group 2.

If time permits and the pupils desire to do so, allow them to organize on simple lines a city government.

6. How did Athens and Sparta grow?

Civic work—Two debates—Time, 1 week.

Group 1.

Resolved: "That the local government of our city is more efficient than that of Athens." Resolved: "That the local government of our city is more efficient than that of Sparta."

Group 2.

7. What are some of the purposes and results of the "League of Nations and the World Court"?

Civic work—Each group is to present informal arguments on, Which has done more for World Peace?—Time, 2 weeks.

18. Why is it better to have the President appoint his Cabinet than it is to have them elected?—Time, 1 week.

Civic work—Elect a President and have him choose a cabinet. Each cabinet member choose two or three secretaries.

- A. Secretary of Interior and secretaries. Make a report on school attendance in state.
- B. Secretary of Agriculture and secretaries. Make a report on amount and value of some farm product in local state.
- C. Secretary of Navy and secretaries. Names and cost of battleships of United States.
- D. Secretary of War and secretaries. Report on number of men now in service in U. S.
- E. Secretary of State and secretaries. Report on work done by observer at World Court.
- F. Secretary of Labor and secretaries. Report on number of laborers in own state.
- G. Secretary of Commerce and secretaries. Report on decline of our commerce with Europe since 1920.
- H. Attorney General and secretaries. Report on recent injunction decision.
- I. Postmaster General and secretaries. Report on postal rules governing class of local city.
- J. Secretary of Treasury and secretaries. Report on taxes in local city.

19. Why does the Constitution specify that all bills for raising revenue must originate in the House of Representatives?—Time, 1 week.

Civic work—Organization of the House of Representatives. Discuss the advisability of changing tariff rates to relieve our foreign commerce.

- A. Elect Speaker.
- B. Choose party leaders.
- C. Divide class into parties.
- D. Prepare plan.
- E. Present plan.

Decide if it was a wise plan to give the power of beginning tax legislation here.

20. What is the difference between the American Republic and the Roman Empire?

Civic work—Which is the better form of government?—Time, 1 week.

- | <i>Group 1.</i> | <i>Group 2.</i> |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| America. | Roman Empire. |
| A. Aims. | A. Aims. |
| B. Leaders. | B. Leaders. |
| C. Laws. | C. Laws. |
| D. Results on Nation. | D. Results on Nation. |

21. What did Christianity do in war and peace in Rome?

- A. Aims.
- B. Policies.
- C. Effect on nations.
- D. Effect on world.

Civic work—Time, 3 weeks. Groups plan a short program. Present results of surveys showing forces working for harmony. Show by a chart a definite workable plan for understanding, co-operation, and tolerance in the community.

For the largest measure of success with this plan three requirements are necessary—careful lesson planning of the material in the text, reference material collected before assignments are made, a knowledge of the principles of supervised study and of the socialized recitation.

How France Trains for Citizenship

BY JOHN C. ALMACK AND RUTH BORMOSE.

Education in France is used as a political instrument to mold the minds of the rising generation to a preconceived type of citizenship. After her defeat in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870, France saw the danger in a blind, boastful patriotism founded upon ignorance of national conditions. Such an ignorance had led to over-confidence, unreadiness, and disaster. Envisioned by defeat, she undertook a preparedness program built upon an intelligent, critical patriotism, carefully developed through education. To summarize the civic program which grew out of the new conception is the purpose of this paper.

The teaching of citizenship has not been simply the chance outgrowth of the sentiment of individual writers and of schoolmasters. The highly centralized government of France has supervised the development of instruction and made it systematic. This has been done partly by means of laws, but more directly by school regulations and courses of study. These courses are formulated from time to time by the executive department, with the co-operation of

the two Chambers. They indicate clearly the objectives of the teaching and the limits within which instruction is to be carried on. Subjects of moral education provided for in the program have included, for example, "La Patrie." Under this heading has been taken up "France, her triumphs and her misfortunes" and "Duties towards the Fatherland and towards society." In more advanced courses the pupils were taught, "What a man owes to the Fatherland—obedience to the laws, military service, discipline, devotion, and fidelity to the flag."

The doctrine of "revanche," or reprisal, has had a rôle in the drama of civic education. Most of it centers around the loss of Alsace-Lorraine, and appeared in geographies, histories, readers, and manuals of moral and civic instruction. In 1915 the Ministry of Public Instruction distributed to all school teachers of France a manual on history teaching. Herein, Paul Deschanel, president of the Chamber of Deputies, recalls the atrocities of 1870, and declares that the generosity of France has caused her to forget

too easily. He advises the teachers to teach the lessons of the great war so thoroughly that they will not pass from the minds of the children when growing up so easily as they faded from the minds of their elders. The outcome of the world war has had the effect of modifying this aspect of the course of study.

Leaders in education have tried to prevent a common tendency towards hero-worship from exerting its hypnotic influence. Napoleon is strongly criticized, both for wickedness and weakness. On the other hand, socialism is combated. The Revolution is defended because it did away with evils and brought present benefits, liberating France from feudalism and monarchy. So far as education is concerned there is no apparent evidence that France has lost any of her enthusiasm for democracy.

With the first part of the twentieth century a change in history texts is noticeable. For three decades patriotic history held the field. Since 1902 there has been manifest a tendency to restrict the former emphasis upon wars and the negotiations of diplomats, and to turn to the study of customs, ideas, and institutions. The scientific movement in history was probably the forerunner of the new trend.

Closely associated with the scientific movement in history was the growth of pacifism, "the crisis in patriotism." This anti-militaristic doctrine did not penetrate very deeply, but probably did something to weaken the policy of teaching "revanche." That internationalism had no strong hold on the people is shown by the ease with which it was broken down when the great war began.

The basis for civic education is instruction in morals: "Destined to bind together, to complete, to raise, and to ennable all the other instruction of the school." It begins with the smallest citizens—those from two to five years of age in the "Ecole Maternelles." These schools are the connecting link between the home life and the more formal school, "preserving the affection and gentleness of the family, and at the same time initiating into the work and regularity of the educational institution." They endeavor to lead the children to contract good habits and to learn simple lessons in co-operation. The first principles of good and evil are taught directly.

In the next section—children aged from five to seven years—more emphasis is placed upon moral instruction. Short verses of ethical import are explained and committed to memory; stories which influence conduct are told. To insure that the point is mastered, the teacher asks questions, and makes comments. Especial attention is given to children in whom "the mistress has observed some fault or budding vice."

The "Cours Elementaire," in which are found children from seven to nine years of age, has the following program: Familiar talks concerning moral problems and forms of conduct; readings with explanations (stories, rules, precepts, parables, fables); putting morals into action in the class by observation of character, intelligent application of school

discipline; appealing to the feelings; correction of foolish notions and superstitions. Many lessons are drawn from facts observed by the children, the object being "to create a feeling of admiration for universal order; a feeling of disgust and horror for vices."

The "Cours Moyen," children nine to eleven, continues the same type of instruction, but uses greater precision and order in method. There are two major divisions:

I. The child in the family. (1) Duties towards parents and grandparents: obedience, love, and gratitude; (2) duties of brothers and sisters: to love one another, protection of younger by elder, to set a good example; (3) duties towards servants: kindness and politeness; (4) duties towards God: obedience to His laws as revealed by conscience and reason.

II. The child in the community. (1) Duties towards self: cleanliness and temperance, avoidance of drunkenness; (2) good and bad habits: economy, avoidance of debts, effects of passion for gambling, moderation in desire for gain; (3) the soul: veracity and sincerity, personal dignity, self-respect, modesty, courage in danger and in misfortune; (4) duties towards man: justice and charity, respect for property and reputation of others, tolerance; (5) duties towards the school: assiduity, docility, work; (6) duties towards France: devotion, loyalty.

In the "Cours Supérieur," children from eleven to thirteen years of age, social morals are especially stressed. One-half hour a day is given over to direct training on the following topics: (1) The family: duties of parents and children; (2) society: necessity and benefits of, respect for property, the honor and reputation of others, human liberty and life; (3) the country: obedience to laws, discipline, military service; taxes—duty to pay, duty to condemn fraud; the vote—conscientious, intelligent; motto, "Liberty, equality, fraternity."

In the upper primary schools, or "Cours Complémentaire," civic education is grouped under the heading of literary instruction, to the whole of which nine hours weekly are devoted. Moral education is of the same type as in the lower primary: the family, society, country. Under civics are taught some elements of common law and political economy, and quite specific ideas of the political, financial, and judicial organization of France are given. These include elementary notions of civil and commercial law, the production of wealth, the factors of production: resources, labor, thrift, capital; and distribution and consumption of wealth. Civic and moral duties are listed under (1) the country: public authority, the constitution and the laws, patriotism; (2) nations: international rights and privileges; (3) social life: respect for person, honor, life; (4) personal: self-respect, self-control; (5) religion: liberty of worship, God, and the future life.

The law of 1902 gave a definite form to civic education in the secondary schools. Two cycles were provided, with content as follows:

I. (1) Sixth and fifth classes: Civic instruction in respect to the army, the fatherland, the commune, canton, and department. (2) Fourth class: Moral education by readings, recitations, methodical interviews, and a consideration of such qualities as sincerity, courage, moral delicacy, kindness, and self-education. (3) Third class: Readings, recitations, and interviews to show man's value in society; topics treated are fraternal and social justice, the value of the professions, the value of the nation, the state and the laws, respect for humanity, individual liberty, and social discipline.

II. Moral education is taught in connection with philosophy. Attention is given to individual, domestic, social, civic, and political morals. The functions of the state, the democratic ideal of justice and liberty as the highest attainable make up the climax to the course.

Opportunities for adult education are everywhere available through municipal or private enterprise. Of schools, there are three types: (1) For illiterates, (2) continuation schools proper, and (3) technical schools. Libraries of the primary schools are open to public use; lectures and public readings are frequently given by the teachers. Various societies promote adult education; "The Association Philotechnique," the "Societe d'Enseignement Moderne," the "Universites Populaires" aim at informal discussions of political problems, the procuring of educational lectures, and artistic cultivation.

The world war has not worked a material change in the French program of civic education. In 1917 M. Viviani, Minister of Education, submitted a "projet de loi" to the Chamber of Deputies, which had for its object the training of youth to "be good citizens, good workmen, and good soldiers." Compulsory education to the age of eighteen is provided, the training being general, technical, and physical. All receive general instruction: civics and common law being important elements. Country boys receive their technical training in agriculture; the girls in sewing and housewifery. Commercial subjects are emphasized in the town and city schools.

A number of characteristics of the French plan may be cited. First of all stands the carefully defined aim; second, the systematization of instruction; third, the broad foundation in morals, and fourth, the emphasis upon state service. The objections that may be advanced hinge upon the inflexibility of the programs, the presence of over-much theory, and the removal from contact with society in the working methods. From our point of view a little less reliance upon courses, a recognition that they are only means to an end, and a larger independence for individual schools would result in a wiser adaptation to modern tendencies and modern needs. The attitude of France in respect to world affairs as well as in local matters is a clear reflection of the content and methods she has employed in civic education. Viewed in the light of national objectives and conditions, we must agree that the system has been an effective ally of the government.

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A Plan for Teaching a Course in Civics on the Unit Basis

BY ANNIE E. CANNON, M.A., UNION HIGH SCHOOL, TURTLE CREEK, PA.

Like most courses in the curriculum, the course in civics has passed through a process of development. Every step in the process has not been entirely satisfactory. The great need has been to make the course adaptable to every-day life. With the development of the times, in order to make any training profitable, it is necessary to improve courses to meet the needs caused by certain changes. The problems that have always remained to be solved are: first, to discover what should be included in civic training; second, how to train the pupils to be citizens, profitable both to society and to themselves.

For many years civic training was nothing more than a study of formal government. It was practically an imparting, and an absorbing process whereby the pupils memorized official duties, the powers of congress, and similar facts. By many educators and leaders in the field of civic education, this system was looked upon as unsatisfactory. With social, political, and industrial development came the realization that formal civics or civil government was not meeting the needs of the time. There were a few leaders interested in citizenship training, who evidently felt that a mass of knowledge did not necessarily insure participation in civic affairs. There have been changes both in content and in method. These changes were not always widely known, simply the work of experimenters, who were reaching out for new ideas and methods to help bring about, what they considered, the desired results. Gradually, the subject matter changed from a study of government structure to a study of subjects common to community, state and national life. The changes in content were usually accompanied by changes in method.

Numerous systems have been resorted to, in an attempt to provide a practical course in civics. The unit system, which is practically a new idea, is a plan by which related subject matter is grouped under one head. It provides plenty of opportunity for various methods of procedure. It may call into play the problem method, and thus give opportunity for that practical work which is so vital, especially in civics. Many educators advocate this system: first, because it requires the grouping of related content; second, it confines itself to no one particular classroom method. It disregards the page system of assignment and adheres to related content. Mr. H. L. Miller, in his book, "Directing Study," states in defense of the unit system or, as he calls it, the unit of instruction, that, "The common problem, subject-whole, or unit of instruction serves to unify the work of a class group." It is in no way comparable to the old formal type of instruction. With the introduction of this system, the one textbook system, which was probably one of the chief weaknesses of the old type of instruction, is forced out of use.

The plan submitted in this paper is based on the unit system. This plan came as the result of an attempt to organize a course in civics which should be practical. It consists of seven units of work, as follows:

- I. Finance.
- II. Welfare Work.
- III. Protection—Property and Personal Rights.
- IV. Industry and Progress.
- V. Highway and Highway Transport.
- VI. Vocational Guidance.
- VII. Government Organizations.

Each unit is organized according to the same plan. The outstanding features of the plan of the course are as follows:

1. Aims of the Civics course.
2. Outline of the seven units of work.
3. Approach to the course.
4. A list of readings for the course.
5. A list of plays for the course.

By comparing the method of instruction in civics in the past with that of the present time, it will be seen that the sole object under the old system was to teach content, while under the later methods, the acquiring of information is not the only desired result. Other guide posts have been set up to train the pupils to be useful citizens. The guide posts that have been accepted as aims of the plan presented in this paper were gathered from articles and editorials in which educators and leaders in the field of citizenship training stated principles and aims that they considered should be the goals of civic training. To make them usable they were grouped into three ultimate aims, with contributory aims for each ultimate aim as is shown below:

Ultimate Aims—Contributory Aims

1. Information
Understanding.
Judgment.
2. Service
Obligations.
Duties.
Rights.
3. Attitude
Appreciation.
Interest.
Ideals.
Obedience.
Conviction.
Toleration.

The Ultimate Aims are stated as follows:

1. To acquire knowledge.
2. To induce pupils to render service as citizens.
3. To help to develop the proper attitude on the part of the pupils.

A suitable approach for introducing the course was planned. This introduction varies from the old form of introduction in that it opens the course by the method of comparison. Due to the variety of interests that might be holding the attention of a group of pupils entering upon a new course, it is necessary to provide some means of awakening the whole group to a common interest. Dr. Dewey, in his book, "Democracy and Education," states "One who recognizes the importance of interest will not assume that all minds work in the same way because they happen to have the same teacher and textbooks. Attitudes and methods of approach and response vary with the specific appeal, the same material makes this appeal itself varying with difference of natural attitude, of past experience, of plan of life, and so on." So, it is true, that at the beginning of a course, and even at the beginning of each class period, the pupils arrive in their classes with a variety of interests. Some come from one class; some come from another. Some are still pondering over problems that might have arisen in the preceding class, which may have been Algebra, Latin, English, or some other class. Some enter the course with the idea of looking for an easy study; others are there because they are compelled to be there; still others are there because they want to be there. Since this is true, in order to establish a common interest for the whole class, there must be a transition from the old interests to the new. The teachers must assume the responsibility for the change, but the pupils should be kept unconscious of the change.

The following questions are simply rhetorical and are to be used as a basis for comparison in introducing the course. They will help to bring the pupils to a realization that conditions have not always been as they are now. Every pair of rhetorical questions is related to one of the units.

1. What is the difference between the way the Indians lived when this country was first settled and the way we live?
2. How did the Indians earn their living?
3. How do we get our living?
4. How were the Indians ruled?
5. How are we ruled?
6. Who took care of the Indians' blind, sick, insane, orphans, deaf and dumb, and criminals?
7. How do we take care of our blind, sick, insane, orphans, deaf and dumb, and criminals?
8. How did the Indians travel?
9. How do we travel?
10. How did the Indians educate their children?
11. How are the children in this country educated?

The finding of suitable methods of procedure has presented as much a problem in Citizenship Training as has the finding of suitable content. The plan employed here requires reference work, which makes it possible for the pupils to get more than one view-

point. It not only affords the pupils the opportunity of searching the different references for material, but the outline system forces upon them the responsibility of reading from various sources. With each unit outline a supplementary reading list is supplied. There is less chance for a teacher to make the mistake of following the recitation system when he has a list of supplementary readings for the pupils to use. Supplementary readings almost always give way to discussion.

For the purpose of checking the amount of reference reading each pupil is doing, it is advisable to give the class a list of questions to be answered orally or in written form. The drill questions included with each unit of work are used for this purpose. The pupils profit by writing their own drill questions. Then, either the next class period or three or four days after they have written the questions, they are often called upon to take a list not their own and answer the questions.

Probably nowhere is there a greater need for learning to solve problems than in the Social Sciences. Dr. Snedden, in his book, "Civic Education," states, "The actual application of Social Science knowledge in governmental and other 'large groups' policies by citizens commonly involves the solution of problems, no less than does the practical application of mathematics and the natural sciences." With every unit, there is a list of problems and study questions. Without a problem there is very little creative thinking. The problem method is a means of applying what is already known. The recitation system allows only for a lip-service or a repeating process. H. L. Miller in his book, "Directing Study," says, "A lip service to knowledge is a poor and inadequate preparation to meet the exigencies of modern life." The purpose of the problem is not to get away from facts, but to use them. Quoting Mr. Miller again, "The situation to be avoided is a mass of unleavened dough. Enough must be done in the field of self-discovered facts to hold in solution the great mass of material." Dr. Vandenberg, in his book, "The Junior High School Idea," in referring to the problem, says, "It is not the educational feast, we place before pupils that nourishes them, but rather what they accept and assimilate that strengthens their mental make up."

In most cases, the pupils will have to be taught to break up the problems into as many problems as possible. They must be taught how to solve a problem. The need for this procedure can be explained by the fact that the learner has been regarded almost universally as a recipient. The first three or four class periods can be used in teaching the members of the class how to solve problems.

A list of questions and problems supplied with each unit does not conclude the questioning process; rather, it merely initiates it. The pupils are held responsible for writing questions for drill or review. Dr. Vandenberg advocates questioning by the pupils.

The "Special Topics" for each unit provide an opportunity to apply the principles which the pupils have gathered from their study. It gives each

member a chance to display his natural ability. Two or three principles are set up as the basis for a special topic, for example, "Poor sewage disposal can cause disease." "Disease may disable or cause the death of many people." With these two principles the students are allowed to use their own initiative as to the way they want to develop the discussion.

There are some citizenship plays that can be used to advantage in a civics course. A few of them are listed in this plan. Many worth-while principles are often brought out in a play, and are shown with much more effect than if they were read. Most of these plays are inexpensive and easily reproduced.

The reading of books on civic subjects proves to be a profitable tool in making the course interesting. The effect of good reading, however, is often destroyed because it is frequently imposed as a duty upon the pupils, instead of stimulating a desire to read. One way of awakening interest is for the teacher to start a story and continue it to an interesting part, then stop and say: "If anyone would like to finish reading the book, it will be on my desk." Another way employed to stimulate interest is first to let a pupil tell a story to the climax, or to an interesting part of the story, then discontinue it. This method serves a double purpose. First, it gives the pupils practice in recasting stories; second, it serves as a stimulus to read.

The purpose of tests should be to measure the attainments of pupils or to measure progress. In other words, tests are used to discover for the satisfaction of the teacher whether she has successfully taught the subject-matter or conducted the classroom work so the pupils have attained what the aims have set up for him to attain. According to some educators, it is questionable whether all aims can be measured by tests that are limited to academic information or to social materials which are unequally shared by any group. But Dr. Dewey says: "Attitude is reflected in the thinking and reasoning process." A large number of the statements included in this plan demand reasoning to answer them correctly.

In order to measure the pupils' attainments as accurately as possible, the writer constructed objective tests. With each outline there is appended an objective test. For Unit I. there are two tests, a multiple-choice and a true-false test. For Unit V. there is a completion test, in which there are fifty blanks to be filled in. There is a true-false test for each of the other five units.

The test should be mimeographed or printed, so that each pupil will have a copy. The answers can be given on the sheet with the statements, or on a specially prepared answer sheet form. It is possible to dictate the test, allowing enough time at the end of the reading of each statement for the pupil to write the answers. This is not considered a particularly good way to administer the test, because the inflection of the voice often betrays the answer. Besides, this method does not give the pupils enough time to reason out the answer.

There is an opportunity in the true-false test to guess. To find the score and punish for guessing, the number of incorrect answers is subtracted from the number of correct answers. For the completion test and for the multiple-choice test, the score is found by adding all the correct answers.

It is necessary that every one in the class be supplied with a copy of an outline of each unit of work, a list of study problems, references, and of topics, and a typewritten copy of the test. With this outline of subject-matter, problems, references, tests, and readings, the teacher can feel that there is a definite plan of procedure for him. Even if conditions do change, the principles underlying the problems, tests, and outline will remain practically the same.

LIST OF PLAYS FOR THE COURSE.

1. Cathers, Willa.....*My Antonia*
2. Henderson, Daniel.....*The Alien*
3. Kelly, Myra.....*Little Aliens*
4. Minister, Edith.....*Our Naputski Neighbors*
5. Schaufler, Robert.....*Scum o' the Earth*
6. Zangwill, Israel.....*The Melting Pot*
7. Payne, Ursula.....*The Triumph of Democracy*
8. Payne, Ursula.....*The Soap Box Orator*
9. Payne, Ursula.....*The Victory of the Good Citizen*
10. Payne, Ursula.....*Rich Citizens*
11. Payne, Ursula.....*Humane Citizens*

LIST OF READINGS FOR THE COURSE.

1. Antin, Mary.....*The Promised Land*
2. Bok, Edward,
The Americanization of Edward Bok
3. Bangs, John K.....*The Booming of Acre Hill*
4. Bangs, John K.....*The Enchanted Typewriter*
5. Band, A. Russell.....*Pick, Shovel, and Pluck*
6. Deland, Margaret.....*The Iron Woman*
7. Duncan, Norman.....*The Fugitive Parson*
8. Du Puy, William A.,
Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles
9. Earle, Alice M.,
Curious Punishments of Bygone Days
10. Gilchrist, Geth. B.....*Life of Mary Lyon*
11. Kendall, Ralph S.....*The Luck of the Mounted*
12. McClure*My Autobiography*
13. Orth, Samuel P.....*Our Foreigners*
14. Philpotts, Eden.....*Brunels Tower*
15. Panunzio, Constantine M.,
The Soul of an Immigrant
16. Riis, Jacob A.....*How the Other Half Lives*
17. Riis, Jacob A.....*The Making of an American*
18. Riis, Jacob A.....*Neighbors*
19. Richards, Laura E.,
Elizabeth Fry, the Angel of the Prisons
20. Richards, Laura E.....*Two Noble Lives*
21. Robin, W. E.....*The Story of My Life*
22. Sinclair, Bertrand W.....*Poor Man's Rock*
23. Steiner, Edward A.....*From Alien to Citizen*
24. Vorse, Mary H.....*Men and Steel*
25. Wood, Clement*Mountain*

UNIT II—WELFARE WORK—CIVICS.

AIMS:

1. To furnish the pupil with a knowledge of the social conditions and needs for improvement.
2. To stimulate an interest in the social welfare of the community.
3. To furnish him with a knowledge of the means by which he can help to improve the condition of the people.

I. Approach—Every one needs protection, which he alone cannot provide.

II. Welfare Work Opportunities.

- a. Health.
- b. Education.
- c. Immigrants.
- d. Inefficiency.
 1. Delinquents.
 2. Defectives.
 3. Dependents.
 - Poor.
 - Aged dependents.
- e. Morals.

III. Health.

- a. Health Departments (local and state).
 1. Work and duties.
- b. Means of conserving health.
 1. Explain.
 2. Give a list of means.
- c. Physical defects.
 1. List of defects.
 2. Causes.
- d. Physical defects and National Strength.
- e. Physical defects and industry.
- f. Means of preventing defects and diseases.
- g. Epidemics.
 1. Explain.
 2. Causes.
- h. Food inspection.
 1. Purpose.
 2. Benefits of food inspection.
 3. By whom is the work carried on?

i. Sanitation and health.

1. How are they interdependent.
- j. The quarantine.
 1. Purpose.
 2. Who has charge of the quarantine?
 3. Benefits.
 4. Who is responsible for enforcing the quarantine law?

k. Department of Agriculture and Health.

1. Work done by Agricultural Department.

l. War Department.

1. Health work.

m. Departments of Labor and Interior.

n. Education for physical fitness.

IV. Education.

a. Departments.

1. County.
2. State.
3. United States.

a. Duties of each.

b. Head of each department (name and title).

b. Systems of education (public).

1. Elementary.
2. Secondary (Junior high).
- (Senior high).

3. University or College.

c. Public school opportunities.

1. For whom?
2. Maintained by whom?
3. Causes of inequality of opportunity.
4. Means of improving opportunity.

d. Purpose of education.

1. Democracy depends upon it.
2. Government by means of education.
3. Specialization.

V. Immigrants.

a. The first immigrants to U. S.

1. Causes.

b. Present sources of immigration.

c. Where do they settle usually?

1. Districts.

2. Among what kind of people?

d. Distribution of immigrants in industry.

1. Are they needed?

e. Immigration Laws.

1. Kinds.

2. Purpose.

f. Naturalization (Article XIV, Constitution).

1. Requirements.

g. Effects of immigration in industry.

1. Wages.

2. Accidents.

3. Death rate.

4. Kind of work.

5. Certain types of labor.

h. Setting the goal for the immigrant.

1. By whom?

i. Restricting the immigrant.

1. Socially.

2. Politically.

3. Industrially.

j. Opportunities for the immigrant.

k. Americanizing the immigrant.

VI. Inefficiency.

a. Members of the inefficient class.

1. Delinquent.

2. Defectives.

3. The poor.

4. The aged dependents.

a. Explain.

b. The delinquents or criminals.

1. Kinds of crimes.

2. Punishments (not determined by kinds of crimes, but conditions).

3. Causes of crime.

4. Treatment of criminals.

5. Institutions for criminals.

6. Convict labor.

7. Means of reducing number of crimes.

8. The tramp.

c. Defectives.

1. Insane.

2. Blind.

3. Deaf and dumb.

4. Diseased.

a. Means of relief.

b. Institutions and schools.

c. Schools.

d. Hospitals.

(Maintained by whom?)

1. Public.

2. Private.

e. Dispensaries.

d. Means of preventing defectives.

1. 4.

2. 5.

3. 6.

e. Safety devices.

1. Purpose.

2. Benefits.

3. List of Safety devices.

f. The poor.

1. Causes of poverty.

2. Methods of relief.

3. The settlement house.

4. Public Charitable Institutions.

5. Private Charitable Institutions.

6. Means of preventing poverty.

g. Aged.

VII. Morals.

a. Reverence or respect.

b. Honor.

c. Honesty.

- d. Conscientious.
- e. Justice.

VIII. Applying objectives.
IX. Test.

LIST OF REFERENCES FOR UNIT II.

1. Cleland, McKenzie—"A Court That Prevents Criminals," *World's Work* (June, 1900), vol. XVIII, pp. 11689-11690.
 2. Forbush, Wm. B.—"The Coming Generation," pp. 189-202.
 3. Town, Ezra T.—"Social Problems," pp. 184-231.
 4. Howe, J. B.—"New Era Civics."
 5. Hill, H. C.—"Community Life and Community Civics."
 6. Hughes, R. O.—"Community Civics."
 7. Magruder, Frank A.—"American Government in 1923."
- Lessons in Community and National Life.
- B-7: Denton, M. C.—"An Intelligently Selected Diet."
 - C-3: Storm, G. C.—"The Water Supply of a Town or City."
 - C-19: Bramhall, F. D.—"How the City Cares for Health."
 - C-31: Powell, L.—"Immigration."

SPECIAL TOPICS—UNIT II.

1. Throwing dirty water in the yard.
2. How can the stores be made sanitary?
3. What can be done to clean up our town?
4. Occupations of the Insane.
5. How the feeble-minded are educated.
6. A community chest.
7. Causes of fire.
8. The aerial Forest Patrol.
9. Clean Home.
10. The Health Department in Our Town.
11. The different ways of taking care of the Poor in our Town.
12. Taking care of a foreigner.

STUDY PROBLEMS—UNIT II.

1. What does the health department do to help the people to co-operate in conserving health?
2. How can the school be an agency for conserving health?
3. Why is the government interested in providing means of conserving health?
4. What is the purpose of inoculation?
5. Why is every child forced to be vaccinated before he can attend school?
6. How may the community be affected if any of its members are suffering from defects?
7. How is the water in a community often the cause of much sickness in the community?
8. Was the Westinghouse Works affected by the influenza epidemic?
9. How can you help to prevent epidemics?
10. Are you doing anything to prevent the spread of diphtheria, scarlet fever, or any other disease? If so, what are you doing? What can you do to help prevent the spread of any disease?
11. If the bread-winner in the family is stricken with a disease, how is the rest of the family affected?
12. How has the discoveries in medicine, such as cures, drugs, etc., helped to reduce the wastage of human life?
13. How are the pure food laws helping to protect health?
14. How does the quarantine help to prevent the spread of disease?
15. If you are afflicted with a disease, why should you stay away from other people?
16. If you keep your yard full of stagnant water, rubbish, or garbage, especially in warm weather, how are you a hindrance to your neighbors and the community?
17. How are the sick in your town taken care of?
18. Is there anything in your community which causes poor health? What can be done to get rid of this obstacle?

19. Why does the government forbid the manufacture of the sulphur match or any such article?
20. What is the school doing to improve the health of the boys and girls?
21. Why is it important that a place where food is sold be free from disease and absolutely sanitary?
22. In what way does education make people free?
23. Why should the compulsory school law be the same in every town?
24. What are the advantages of preventing the immigrants from congregating in colonies?
25. Why should the immigrant be forced to learn to speak and read the English language?
26. How can the immigrant become a U. S. citizen? What privileges will he have when he is a citizen which he did not have before?
27. Could we do without the immigrant?
28. What should the immigrant begin to learn when he comes to this U. S.?
29. Who should set the goal for the immigrant? What is the goal?
30. What are the purposes of immigration laws?
31. Of all the immigrants you know, what kind of work are they doing?
32. If there were 100 defective children in your community what would be the best thing to do with them?
33. How is the state helping to take care of the inefficient group of people?
34. Why should the government take care of the delinquents?
35. Do you think there is anything in your town to cause crimes to be committed?
36. What should be the purpose of punishment? What is the purpose of parole, probation, and bail?
37. What means are there of proving a man has or has not committed a crime? What privileges does the accused have?
38. Why should the blind, the deaf, and the dumb be taught a trade?
39. What has the government done to help reduce the number of defectives?
40. What has our state government done to help make orphans and widows financially independent?
41. How do these same laws help to reduce the number of accidents in any kind of work?
42. Where can you use these five principles?

Date.....

Section..... Name.....

HEALTH CARD.

To be used by the pupils for field study.

1. Is fruit left uncovered on the counter?
2. Are baskets of fruit, vegetables, potatoes, etc., left uncovered on the floor? Why should they not be left uncovered?
3. Are bread, cake, pie, or any bakery articles left uncovered on the counter or shelves?
4. Are they exposed to the flies?
5. Does the storekeeper allow people to touch or handle food?
6. Have you been in a butcher shop and seen people touch or handle the meat?
7. Do you buy fruit that has been in baskets on the sidewalk days at a time? Why should you not?
8. Do your people put food in an uncovered dish out to cool? Should you? Why not?
9. Do your people buy milk from people who keep dirty milk pails?
10. Do your people buy milk from a farm where there is a contagious disease? Why should you not?
11. Do you wipe off the top of the milk bottle before removing the stopper and pouring out the milk? Why should you do this?
12. Does the storekeeper pick up food from the floor and sell it? Would you buy it? Why not?
13. Does the grocery storekeeper, butcher, baker, fruit

- dealer sweep the floor when the food is uncovered? Why should they not?
14. In soda fountains, ice-cream parlors, etc., are the dishes just rinsed, or are they scalded, especially when there is an epidemic?
 15. Do you cough and sneeze in your handkerchief? Why should you?
 16. Do you violate quarantine laws?
 17. Do you spit on the street?
 18. What do you do to help prevent the spread of disease?
 19. What can you do to help prevent the spread of disease?
 20. What do you do in the care of your body to keep yourself healthy?
 21. What agencies are there in your community for promoting health?
 22. Make a list of safety-first health rules.
 23. Make a list of means of preventing sickness, such as state laws, rules, etc.
 24. How is your home ventilated?
 25. Why should your home be well ventilated day and night?

SAMPLE DRILL TEST—UNIT II.

1. Name one way of helping to prevent the spread of disease.
2. Give one reason for having food inspection.
3. What is the purpose of the quarantine?
4. Who is allowed to attend our public schools?
5. Name two parties who are responsible for enforcing the quarantine.
6. How are the public schools in this country maintained?
7. Give one reason for having public schools.
8. Give one cause of an epidemic.
9. What is one purpose of safety devices?
10. Name one way of maintaining "the physically unfit for work."
11. Name one means of conserving your health.
12. Name one way you can protect some one's else health.
13. What is the compulsory school attendance age in Pennsylvania?
14. Is the number of immigrants into this country limited?
15. Name two ways of being a citizen of this country.
16. Are all foreigners citizens?
17. What chances has an immigrant of becoming a citizen of this country?
18. What people or nationalities are not allowed the rights of citizenship?
19. What is the meaning of "to Americanize"?
20. Who should be responsible for Americanizing the immigrant?

TRUE AND FALSE TEST—UNIT II.

1. The local health department administers the food and drugs act.
2. The school does not do anything to improve the health of the pupils.
3. People are not interdependent for health.
4. The food inspector notifies the dairy, meat-packing houses, or canning factories that he will inspect them on a certain day.
5. Bureau of Education seeks to promote physical education.
6. Instruction in home economics does not help to improve the people's health.
7. The Bureau of Mines conducts experiments to prevent accidents in mines.
8. The Department of Interior seeks to improve the physical conditions of labor for both men and women.
9. There is no way of protecting people against poor food.
10. If a farmer's cattle is condemned and killed because it has an incurable disease, the government pays for the cattle.
11. There is no legal means of preventing epidemics from spreading.

12. The best means to keep from contracting a disease is to keep the body in a healthful condition.
13. Poor ventilation is very often one of the means of spreading disease.
14. The community is not responsible for the health of its people.
15. The government does nothing to protect the health of its people.
16. If a poor person is sick and cannot pay for medical attention there is no means of taking care of him unless his family or friends take care of him.
17. Epidemics are very often caused by carelessness.
18. The people have nothing to do with the quarantine law.
19. The meat that is unfit for use is condemned, while that which is good has the government stamp placed upon it.
20. People cannot do anything to protect their health.
21. The inspection of immigrants to this country prevents diseases from being brought into this country.
22. Stagnant water does not have a bad effect on the health conditions of a community.
23. There are three different departments of education.
24. The head of the U. S. department of education is called the commissioner.
25. The U. S. commissioner of education is elected by the people.
26. The county superintendent of schools in Pennsylvania is appointed.
27. Foreigners are not allowed to attend the public schools.
28. The children in the country schools have as good educational opportunities as children in the city.
29. It is not necessary for a voter to read or write.
30. Public schools are maintained by taxes.
31. The State Superintendent of Instruction in Pennsylvania is elected by the people.
32. Public Education is necessary in a Republican form of government.
33. The compulsory school attendance age is from 8-16 years in this state.
34. The compulsory education laws are the same in every state.
35. Education makes people free.
36. No child can quit school until he is sixteen in our state.
37. The length of the school term is the same in every state.
38. The compulsory school attendance laws are not well enforced in some states.
39. Every school district is not financially able to equip a good school.
40. There are no advantages derived from consolidating schools.
41. Every public school in the state is a part of the state school system.
42. The United States Public Health Service helps to limit the number of immigrants to this country.
43. The children in the country schools are given as much medical attention as the children in the town or city schools.
44. The educational want is a common want.
45. If a wage earner is sick he is the only loser.
46. Teamwork depends upon a common purpose.
47. A dirty store is dangerous to the health of a town.
48. Epidemics cannot be prevented.
49. There is no means of reducing the number of physical defects in a mill, shop, etc.
50. Impure drinking water is very often the cause of diseases starting in a town.
51. People who do not have children in school do not have to pay school tax.
52. If a child goes to a private school his parents do not have to pay school tax.
53. All persons born in the United States are not citizens of the U. S.
54. Every person in this room can do something to conserve his health.

55. Pure air is essential to good health.
 56. Everybody should not be forced to take the same course.
 57. Tax is not necessary.
 58. Every child that attends school in our state does not have to be vaccinated.
 59. The discoveries in medicine help to reduce the number of deaths.
 60. There are no restrictions on immigration.

UNIT VI—VOCATIONS.

AIMS OF UNIT:

1. To give the pupils some idea of the vast number of opportunities in the vocations.
 2. To teach them the fundamentals of success in any type of work.
 3. To let the pupils know that most of the occupations are essential to society.
 4. To get the pupils to analyze the opportunities and characteristics of any vocation.
- I. Approach: We all live, but how and where we get our food, clothing, and everything else we use, are practical questions? We buy them, but they must be produced. While we are here, what are the rest of the people in the world doing? Some are digging coal, some are working in factories, some are farming, others are ready to tend us when we are sick. These are just a few examples of different kinds of work. In order to turn out the best work possible, people specialize. As a result, we find different groups doing various kinds of work. Each person will be more contented if he does the work he can do and wants to do.

- II. Classification of Occupations (common).
- A. Agriculture, Forestry, and Animal Husbandry.
 - B. Extraction of Minerals.
 - C. Manufacturing and Mechanical Industries.
 - D. Transportation.
 - E. Public Service.
 - F. Professional Service.
 - G. Domestic and Personal Service.
 - H. Clerical Occupations.
 - I. Building Trades.
 - J. Trade.
- III. Following definite line of work.
- A. Advantages.
 - B. Disadvantages.
- IV. Reasons for choosing a particular occupation.
- A.
 - B.
 - C.
 - D.
 - E.
 - F.

- V. Characteristics peculiar to vocations which are beneficial to society.
- A.
 - B.
 - C.

- VI. Things you should consider in choosing any occupation.
- A.
 - B.
 - C.

- VII. Principles to follow in order to make a success in any kind of work.
- A.
 - B.
 - C.

VIII. Occupations.

- A. List of occupations in each group.
- B. Purposes of all occupations in general.
- C. Personal qualifications necessary for any work.

IX. Your duty to your employer.

- A. Courtesies.
- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

X. Securing a position.

- A. Locating vacancy.
1. Advertisements.
2. Employment agencies.
3. Friends.
- B. Applying for a position.
1. By letter.
2. In person.
- a. Appearance.
- b. Manners.
- c. Language.

- XI. Summary (to see if aims have been accomplished).
 XII. Test.

SPECIAL TOPICS—UNIT VI.

1. Reasons why some people don't succeed.
2. Following the work your father does.
3. The lazy workman.
4. The slovenly workman.

LIST OF REFERENCES FOR UNIT VI.

1. Parsons, Dr. F.—"Choosing a Vocation."
2. Gowin and Wheatley—"Occupations."
3. Giles—"Vocational Civics."
4. LaSalle and Wiley—"Vocations for Girls."
5. The Saalfield Publishing Co.—"Careers for the Coming Men."
6. Materials for the Class in Occupations—Bureau of Vocational Guidance—Graduate School of Education, Harvard University.
7. Lessons in Community and National Life, B-8: Burgess, E. W.—"Finding a Job."

STUDY QUESTIONS FOR UNIT VI.

1. Can the country dispense with any one of the groups of work? Give reasons for your answer.
2. How are all these groups interdependent?
3. Give an example of each group of occupations you find in your town.
4. Do you think you should follow one vocation instead of jumping from one kind of work to another? Give reasons for your answer.
5. Give the advantages and disadvantages of staying at one kind of work.
6. Compare the work of two occupations as to:

a. Hours.	g. Healthy work.
b. Income.	h. Chance to learn.
c. Interesting work.	i. Equipment.
d. Chance for advancement.	j. Ethical conditions.
e. Service to community.	k. Requirements.
f. Chance to make friends.	
7. Is it better to select a type of work because it pays a wage regardless of anything else? Give reasons for your answer.
8. How should you use your leisure hours, especially when you work eight hours or less per day?
9. As far as the community is concerned, what is the difference between the poolroom proprietor and the physician?
10. What must a person do if he wants to keep his position; be promoted; have his salary increased?
11. What do you think are the most important factors to be considered in choosing a vocation? Why?
12. If you wanted to follow a certain line of work and were not prepared for it, what would you do or have to do?
13. Should a person accept a position which he knows he cannot do, but thinks he will try? Why?
14. Should you choose a vocation only because you think you will like it? Why?
15. Which occupation is of more benefit to society, the miner or the actor? Give reasons for your answer.
16. Suppose you were thinking of going into the grocery business, to the cleaning business, or any business.
17. What principles should you follow in regard to your employer and fellow-workmen?
18. What would you do to secure a position?

19. Of what must you be careful in applying for a position?
20. Each pupil is to select an occupation and to study it according to the following outline:
 1. Is the occupation important for the welfare of society?
 2. What kind of tasks does the worker have?
 3. What are the advantages of this occupation?
 4. What are the disadvantages and problems?
 5. How can a person prepare for this calling?
 6. What qualities of character must he have?
 7. What physical qualities must he have?
 8. What preparation does this work demand?
 9. Working hours?
 10. What income may be expected at first and later?
 11. Does the occupation help the worker to have a good life as a citizen and a man?
 12. Necessity of particular type of work?
21. Each pupil is to prepare a speech that he would use in applying for position.
22. Make a list of questions that an employer is likely to ask an applicant.

SAMPLE DRILL TEST—UNIT VI.

1. Name four different kinds of occupations.
2. Give one advantage of following one kind of work.
3. Give one disadvantage of following one kind of work.
4. Name one occupation by which society and you are both being benefited.
5. Name one occupation by which you are being benefited and society is being hindered.
6. Name two factors that you should consider in selecting a profession or any occupation.
7. State two factors that you should consider before you accept a position.
8. What are some of the factors that will cause you to lose your position? (3-5.)
9. What duties, aside from your work, do you owe your employer?
10. Where would you go to look for a position?
11. Name three ways of locating a vacancy.
12. Name one type of work that you think is not necessary.
13. Upon what one occupation does everybody depend?
14. State two tasks of the occupation you selected.
15. Is the hotel business essential to the welfare of a community? Give one reason why you think it is or is not essential to society.
16. What would happen if all coal miners would refuse to work? Name one result.
17. Name one factor you would consider if you were thinking of starting a grocery business.
18. Name one thing which has made so many different kinds of work possible.
19. Which is more important, a big salary or a chance for advancement?
20. State one question that an employer will be likely to ask when you apply for a position.

TRUE AND FALSE TEST—UNIT VI.

1. The occupations belonging to the trade group are not essential.
2. Every group of occupations is almost entirely independent of every other group.
3. Big wages is not the best ideal for the beginning worker.
4. As far as their work is concerned, the pool room proprietor is just as much benefit to his community as the physician.
5. In choosing an occupation, the only thing to think of is what benefit can you get from it.
6. There are three or more ways of securing a position.
7. If you were undertaking any business, the only thing to think of is whether you have enough money.
8. An employee owes his employer nothing.

9. Every kind of work is of equal value to a community.
10. If you like a vocation, that is the only requirement in choosing a vocation.
11. A careless workman is just as sure of success as a conscientious workman.
12. Knowledge of and obedience to the laws of health will pay big dividends.
13. The purpose of all work is to earn money.
14. There are only two means of securing a position.
15. A conscientious workman is an asset to his employer.
16. Self-consciousness is a detriment to a person's success.
17. The boy who works during his vacation gets experience which will help him to select his life's work.
18. Ambition and perseverance are not essential to success.
19. Your employer is obligated to you.
20. You should not use your leisure hours for self-improvement.
21. A position that affords an opportunity for advancement is worth accepting.
22. Good health is not necessary to do every kind of work.
23. It is more credit to a person to secure a position through merit than through relationship.
24. There is very little advantage in constantly changing positions.
25. Some vocations are not safe.
26. It is harder to choose a position now than it was fifty years ago.
27. Good appearance is essential in securing a position.
28. Knowledge of goods is the only requirement for a position as a purchasing agent.
29. Courtesy is the best policy for the workman and the employer.
30. Specialization has caused so many different kinds of work.
31. All workmen do not serve the community.
32. The workman who watches the clock wastes the company's money.
33. The location of a business is important to the success of a business.
34. Clerical work is healthful work.
35. Money is the only essential in establishing a business.
36. A strike agitator harms himself more than anyone else.
37. There are more vocations open to girls now than there were a few years ago.
38. Money is the only requirement for farming.
39. Many good friends are very often an asset to a lawyer.
40. There is one occupation upon which everyone depends.

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Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

A Great Historian of the Colonies

The American Colonies in the Eighteenth Century. By Herbert L. Osgood. Four volumes. Columbia University Press, New York, 1924. Vol. I, pp. xxxii, 552; vol. II, pp. xiv, 554. \$5.50 per vol., \$20.00 for 4 vols

Six years ago the life's labors of a great historian ended just when he had completed a great historical work. The seven volumes of large proportions, covering the genesis and flowering of the institutional life of the American colonies through almost two centuries, bear silent and impressive witness to the patient and scholarly devotion of Herbert L. Osgood to a life work.

Professor Osgood was peculiarly qualified for the office he undertook. Thirty years he gave to his self-appointed task, sparing neither strength nor professional income in the scholar's love for pure scholarship, never weary in the pursuit of his object, ever active in the quest of source material scattered in many archives here and abroad, ever busy in the quiet of his study collating and weighing evidence and composing his work. He had more than great industry and patience; he possessed the instincts of a scholar, he entered upon his task with the modern scholar's conception of history. Professor Osgood wanted the truth, the whole truth, and he spared no pains to accumulate the evidence from every source, to see the subject from every angle. For the volumes on the eighteenth century the material is widely scattered, yet few pamphlets escaped him, newspapers were carefully scanned, and months were spent in the archives of the thirteen states and English repositories. The evidence all before him, he approached it simply, directly, objectively. He is no worshipper; he had no preconceptions to satisfy; there is no patriotic rouge or anti-British prejudice. His detachment is amazing; his whole work is eminently judicial, reflecting the spirit of the judge, not the advocate. He sums up with great mastery of feeling, with a calm, steady impartiality.

It is our present task to say a few words in review of the volumes on the eighteenth century, and of these only two dealing with the period 1690-1740 are before us. This century of colonial history in the two generations before the Treaty of Paris of 1763 was an undiscovered country into which few scholars had entered. A few pioneers had explored here and there; Dr. Osgood is the first to furnish a comprehensive account of the field. His interest lies primarily in the evolution of public institutions; he is a student of politics and public law, but of that sort, all too few, that is endowed with a strong historical sense. He sees and understands the many forces and factors of life, religion and traditions, economics and geography, persons, people and prejudices, which lie behind and enter into the making of institutions.

Eighteenth century colonial history is a field almost baffling in its complexity; so many factors to be taken into the reckoning, so many angles from which to view the field, that it almost defies the making of a design which will give proper proportion and relation to each one without sacrificing unity and clarity. There is the problem of particularism, for each of the colonies was a personality, having a genius and temper peculiarly its own. There is the problem of sectionalism, for the New England colonies, the Middle colonies, the Plantation colonies, were separate areas each with a life which set one off against the other; the Old East and the Old West were vitally different sections. There is the problem of nationality, for the colonies bore within themselves the inchoate germs of unity. There is the problem of imperialism, for the colonies had many and important connections within a great empire. Various arrangements are possible, but we feel that the design of Dr. Osgood's work is good, exhibiting the diversities as well as the unities of colonial evolution.

The period 1690-1740 is divided into two equal parts in time; in treatment the first period is given greater attention. In the first period the Anglo-French wars furnish the principle of unity of treatment; in the second period the colonies are studied under the conditions of peace. Eighteen chapters are devoted to a study of the provinces, royal and proprietary, as distinct entities. Thirteen chapters, the best in the work, are broad in character. Five deal with the organs, nature, policies, theories and conduct of the imperial government, chapters of importance both to the student of imperial politics and of English constitutional evolution. Three deal in an enlightened manner with the wars of 1690-1713, others take up such broad subjects as naval stores and piracy, Indian relations along the whole frontier, and the vital questions of the English Church and immigration.

That there are limitations to this work is not to be denied, limitations, however, which are inherent in the very nature of the task. It may be said that the work deals overmuch with the minutiae of life, that the style is lacking in grace and color. Dr. Osgood was not unaware of these possible charges. But when they are brought to the touchstone of the fundamental purpose of the whole work the charges have very little standing. The undertaking is so worthy an object, the drudgery of the work so exacting, that little time was left in the span of a single life for literary embroidery. And yet the manner of the work is worthy of the matter; the language is weighty and indicates strong sense in every line. It is true that Dr. Osgood is an historical anatomist, dissecting his subject to its innermost recesses; such work was, however, an absolute necessity before sound judgments could be reached. And yet throughout the whole there is ample evidence of broad views and sound general conclusions. It is not a work made readable by grace of style and pleasant generalizations to tickle the fancy of the passing reader. To judge this work from that point of view is to do grave injustice. It is essentially an historian's history and from that point of view the work stands as the principal body of authoritative acquired knowledge of the field and subject.

W. T. Root.

University of Wisconsin.

The Lion and the Rose (The Great Howard Story). By Ethel M. Richardson. E. P. Dutton and Co., New York [n. d.]. xix, 615 pp. (2 vols.). \$12.00.

William Bentinck and William III (Prince of Orange): The Life of Bentinck, Earl of Portland, from the Welbeck Correspondence. By Marion E. Grew. Appleton Co., New York, 1924. ix, 433 pp. \$6.00.

Great Britain and Prussia in the Eighteenth Century. By Sir Richard Lodge. Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1923. xi, 221 pp. \$4.70.

The Alliance of Hanover: A Study of British Foreign Policy in the Last Years of George I. By James Frederick Chance. John Murray, London, 1923. xvi, 775 pp. \$8.00.

The first work is a popular account of the great Howard family, which has played so large a role in English history. The book begins with Hereward the Wake, who opposed William the Conqueror, and ends only with the death of the latest Howard hero near Bagdad in 1917. The task is far too ambitious to be done properly in 600 pages. So many characters pass rapidly in review before you that in many cases you get only a kaleidoscopic effect. The work tends to be discursive, and at times it is difficult to follow. In places it is far from critical, and several errors have crept in. In three different places James II

is called the son of Charles II (pp. 356, 429, 431); Elizabeth of York married Henry VII not *before*, but *after* the battle of Bosworth (p. 58); a curious transposition of dates occurs on pages 214 and 215. It seems improbable that William the Conqueror at Senlac "accounted for 2,000 Saxons with his own hand" (p. 29). The author apparently does not understand Magna Carta. Students of history will find this expensive work useful chiefly for the light it casts upon early English manners and customs.

The biography of Bentinck covers his entire career, although it shows a tendency to restrict itself to the manuscript materials at Welbeck. For the most part, the author is fair alike to William III and to Bentinck, even in her account of their quarrel and final separation. In the reviewer's opinion, she is too severe upon both Prior and the Earl of Rochester. Queen Anne is no longer considered a "pathetic puppet," and the brief account of her reign is more highly colored by the Macaulay tradition than the remainder of the work. These are only superficial blemishes, however. The failure to discuss some of the mooted points in the reign of William are more serious. William's attitude toward the assassins of the De Witts is brushed aside, and nothing whatever is said about the massacre of Glencoe or the abrogation of the treaty of Limerick. The work does, however, give an excellent account of the friendship between Bentinck and William, with their almost childish dislike of being separated. The author also shows that William III had a clear realization of the importance of sea power and commerce in European diplomacy. Many of the letters quoted indicate the superlative excellence of Louis XIV's secret service. D'Avaux (French ambassador at Amsterdam) displayed an ability almost uncanny in fathoming even the most intimate secrets of the English and Dutch ministers.

The last two works concern themselves primarily with British diplomacy, but their treatment is entirely different. Professor Sir Richard Lodge covers the entire century from 1689 to 1792, all in 200 pages. Mr. Chance, on the other hand, has nearly four times that space to discuss the diplomacy of the years 1725-1727. The former, originally delivered as the Ford Lectures at Oxford, is the more interesting, but the latter is the more thorough piece of work. Both books are scholarly throughout; both are founded upon a painstaking examination of the archives.

Professor Lodge had made an interesting study of the main tendencies in British diplomacy in the eighteenth century. He has given us a clearer idea of the importance of Lord Hyndford and Joseph Ewart in international affairs. In his discussion of Bute's abandonment of Frederick the Great at the close of the Seven Years' War, he sympathizes with the latter, but for reasons different from those usually given. He also demonstrates that Frederick's undying hatred of England had a most baneful effect upon British diplomacy up to the beginning of the French Revolution.

Mr. Chance's meaty volume is clearly the product of long study in European archives and his bibliography is a model of compactness. The treatment of most of the topics is exhaustive, and his book is likely to remain for many years the final word on Anglo-Hanoverian diplomacy for this period. In places, it is unquestionably tedious, and at times we might welcome more frequent generalizations among so vast an array of facts. Nevertheless, this is a work to which we may safely turn for accurate information on the subject it covers. It is interesting to note that Mr. Chance has a very high opinion of the diplomatic skill of George II and of Victor Amadeus of Savoy.

WILLIAM THOMAS MORGAN.

Indiana University.

Social Change with Respect to Culture and Original Nature.
By William F. Ogburn. B. W. Huebsch, New York,
1922. 365 pp. \$2.50.

The problem attacked in this book is well stated in the Preface: "Why social changes occur, why certain conditions apparently resist change, how culture grows, how civilization has come to be what it is." This is an ambitious program, but the author has treated it in an

objective and undogmatic manner. He summarizes opposing theories, discriminates carefully between facts and inferences or guesses, and refrains from positive assertions where the evidence does not warrant final conclusions.

The work is divided into five main parts. The first is entitled "The Social Heritage and the Original Nature of Man," and insists on a sharp distinction between these two things—one concerned with customs, laws, knowledge, tradition, moral standards, institutions and the like; and the other with our biological heritage of instincts, emotions, and psychological equipment in general. Professor Ogburn believes that ordinarily there has been entirely too much emphasis upon the biological factor, but he utters a warning against going to the opposite extreme. Part II is devoted to social evolution, and Part III to cultural inertia and conservatism. The author points out that while the rate of change increases with the growth of civilization, yet the material culture develops much more rapidly than non-material (custom, law, ethical codes, etc.), since tradition, heredity and vested interests make for conservatism. Hence a "cultural lag," treated in Part IV, which is devoted to social mal-adjustments. It is pointed out that changes in institutions constantly tend to lag behind material changes that clearly demand modifications or substitutions. Part V brings the treatment to a climax in a study of "Adjustments between Human Nature and Culture." The theory of the cave-man in the modern city seems to Professor Ogburn to have been very much overdone. Our adjustments may, upon closer scrutiny, seem to be better than they appear from superficial comparisons.

Leaning strongly toward the anthropologist's emphasis upon the influence of cultural heritage and environment as compared with the biological and psychological emphasis on physical heredity, Professor Ogburn nevertheless is scientific in spirit, careful and moderate in statement, critical in treatment, and proposes no panaceas. His book is singularly free from that rather charlatan custom of dressing up platitudes in high-sounding technical terms, of which too many sociologists are guilty. It would be difficult to find another volume in the field of sociology of more fundamental value to the teacher of social studies struggling with the new-type courses. G.

Then and Now in Education: 1845-1923. By Otis W. Caldwell and Stuart A. Courtis. The World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, 1924. 393 pp. \$2.20.

Child Accounting. By Arthur B. Mochlman. The Courtis Tests, Detroit, Michigan, 1924. 205 pp. \$1.85, postpaid.

Are our schools less efficient than those of our grandfathers? The report on Grammar and Writing Schools by the Boston School Committee of 1845, probably the first American school survey, provides a basis for comparing Then and Now. The report, including the examination questions asked, tabulated results and representative answers of prize pupils, was used together with Horace Mann's comment on the report in the Common School Journal, textbooks of the time and records of the Boston School Board, as a basis for reconstructing the organization, aims and curriculum of the time. To provide means for comparing contemporary schools with those of the past, children from Maine to California were tested with a revised form of the early survey. The test results and a composite picture of a modern school system as found in Detroit present an interesting contrast with the past, although, as the writers are aware, the educational conditions were so widely different that results in many cases are hardly comparable. The most important contribution of the book is the publication in full of the 1845 survey and the extracts from the Common School Journal. From these sources he who runs may read the distance we have traveled educationally from Then to Now. Incidentally, the comments of the Boston School Committee of 1845 upon the failure of achievement in grammar, spelling and penmanship to influence the quality of students' performance in answering the examination questions in history, geography and other subjects, furnish informal data of genuine value upon the question of transfer of training.

Enlightened school policies, sound budget making, efficiency in improving instruction and in enforcing compulsory education laws are dependent upon an accurate system of accounting for children, teachers, and finance. *Child Accounting* presents the principles and technique underlying an effective system of school records for city and state. Its emphasis upon the necessity of adequate, cumulative, individual records which follow the child from the kindergarten through the university, is especially valuable. Twenty-four record forms developed and tested in connection with the improvement of child accounting in Detroit and Michigan are reproduced. The book should be valuable to any superintendent or principal who is interested in reorganizing his school records.

BESSIE LEE GAMBRILL.

Yale University.

Elements of Social Science. Henry Pratt Fairchild. Macmillan Company, 1924.

Social Problems. Ezra Thayer Towne. Macmillan Co., 1924.

Professor Fairchild has produced a very readable, and, on the whole, a very desirable text for fourth year high school students. In accordance with the declared purposes of his book, he has given a practical as well as interesting introduction to "sociology, economics, anthropology, political science, civics." We might add to this list social psychology, for he devotes three chapters to the social control involved in the instincts of vanity, fear and religion. There may be a question, perhaps, of the value of the lengthy discussion of just these three instincts and the complete omission of others equally social in their effect. However, the chapters may be omitted, if desired, without interfering with the unity of his work.

The book seems very well adapted to the age and development of the pupils for whom it is intended. The organization is good, the treatment adequate. Principles are explained simply and clearly, their meaning being emphasized by pen and ink illustrations equally clear and simple. "Interest pockets" abound, consisting usually of a vivid portrayal of the historic background of various customs and institutions in words, or pictures, or both. In breadth of treatment and saneness of outlook, the chapters on the Progress of the Standard, Population, and Immigration seem exceptionally fine.

The references at the end of each chapter offer a wide range in authorities, as well as in the readability of the work to the average high school student. Many of them are excellent books for the school library. The topics suggested for further study almost uniformly demand mature work, and would, as Dr. Fairchild no doubt intended, be possible only with a really superior group. The suggestion which the author makes in his preface that his text, as a study of principles, be used in conjunction with studies of social problems such as are already on the market, is a good one.

One of the studies to which Professor Fairchild refers is Dr. Towne's *Social Problems*, which the author has this year brought up to date. This has meant for the most part substituting the figures of the 1920 census for those of 1910. Where charts or statistics of an even later date have been available, they have been inserted, making the book once more a good elementary study of social problems.

RUTH WANGER.

South Philadelphia High School for Girls.

Book Notes

Two recent volumes by American journalists discuss the foreign policy which the United States should have. Mr. Paul Scott Mowrer, the well known Paris correspondent of the Chicago Daily News, has written a book entitled *Our Foreign Affairs* (E. P. Dutton & Company, New York, 1924. xii, 348 pp. \$3.50) which argues for "the betterment not only of American foreign policy but of international relations in general." It is a sensible and in many places eloquent discussion of our political and economic interests in Europe, of the special problems which democ-

racies have in formulating and executing foreign policies, and of the contrast between the "old" diplomacy and the "new" diplomacy. There are concluding sections on the foreign service of the United States and suggestions as to specific attitudes which the United States should take. Mr. Herbert Adams Gibbons's *America's Place in the World* (The Century Company, New York, 1924. x, 227 pp.) is a more factual treatment of our existing relations with Latin America, Europe and the Far East. The chief defect of the book is that Mr. Gibbons writes frequently in the manner of a United States senator opposed to the League of Nations and appeals to phrases rather than to logic; he calls names rather than argues. Sometimes he is extreme in his judgment, as when, for example, he says (p. 202) that "our influence was slight during the Peace Conference; it has been nil ever since." Both writers discuss the special difficulty presented by the arrangements of the American constitution for the control of foreign policy. To Mr. Mowrer this is not an insuperable obstacle but to Mr. Gibbons it appears that our system "does not lend itself to international co-operation" and that unless the system be changed it will be impossible "for the United States to participate with European nations effectively on the Council of the League of Nations or in international organizations formed for continuity of operation." On this point Mr. Gibbons would seem to be more convincing than Mr. Mowrer, although the truth may lie midway between the two extremes.—LINDSAY ROGERS.

Antiquarians with a leaning toward law, and lawyers with a leaning toward antiquarianism will doubtless rejoice in Miss B. H. Putnam's *Early Treatises on the Practice of the Justices of the Peace in the 15th and 16th Centuries* (Vol. VII of the Oxford Studies in Social and Legal History. The Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1924. 414 pp.). Beginning with a brief study of the familiar printed treatises of the 16th century, in which is proved conclusively the dependence of Fitzherbert's "L'Office" of 1558 on the anonymous "Boke" of 1506, it goes on to search out and analyze the unfamiliar, sometimes unknown, materials, published and unpublished, on which these 16th century treatises are based, and ends with a detailed discussion of Marowe's reading "On the Peace," "the first systematic exposition of the powers of the justices," long undeservedly forgotten and but recently discovered by Miss Putnam in manuscript form. An appendix consisting of the edited text of this reading (in law French), a Worcestershire Manual (in Latin), and a carefully compiled Bibliography, winds up this altogether scholarly monograph, the value of which lies chiefly in its contribution toward a future complete History of the Justices of the Peace. Such a history, when it appears, can perhaps be enjoyed by the common-garden-variety historian.—M. B. F.

We and Our Health presents the arguments for habit formation with regard to air, exercise, rest and sleep, bathing and cleanliness, care of the teeth, posture and diet. The book is splendidly illustrated, a fact which the author is inclined to praise highly in the prefatory note to teachers and parents. While this may be justifiable pride, and is in accord with the plan of the series, the space could have been more profitably employed. The book is printed on good paper, and the format is satisfactory. In general, the subject matter is commendable. The material for the early grades (presumably 3d and 4th, although no clear indication is given in the book on this point) is well chosen. The author very properly gives space in the first chapters to a presentation of scientific measures in health conservation, and condemns magic and superstition. Unfortunately he himself is guilty, in the latter chapters, of perpetuating some old hygienic superstitions outlawed today by adequate scientific experimentation. Chapters III, IV and VI present numerous errors relative to the function of oxygen in the body, setting up exercises, and hygiene of the skin. It will probably be many years before the physical and not the chemical aspects of ventilation will be adequately and generally presented, the

exercise argument for the adult not given to children, and the pores of the body relieved of the buncombe of fairy soap advertising.—JESSE TEIRING WILLIAMS.

Principles of a Note-System for Historical Studies, by Earle W. Dow (The Century Co., New York, 1924, vi, 124 pp. \$1.50), contains chapters on the different kinds of notes (bibliographical and subject), on methods of classification and filing and on the construction of an essay or other piece of writing from the raw materials collected. Chapter V, perhaps the most valuable part of the book, contains a well-worked out plan of classification capable of use in all fields of history. But there are many general hints on the actual taking of notes which will be of service to readers. An excellent feature is the large number of drawings illustrating the matter of the text. These merits lessen to some extent the unfavorable impression given by a style neither lucid nor finished. The style is particularly unfortunate since it greatly decreases the possible value such a book might have for elementary students. Although the author is primarily concerned with historical studies his subject touches many other fields and all whose work necessitates a large amount of reading and note-taking may profitably study his suggestions.—T. P. PEARNOX, Barnard College.

Egyptian History and Art, by Mrs. Annie A. Quibell, originally prepared as a guide book for use in the Cairo Museum, has been brought down to date in order that it might serve as a guide to any historical collection of Egyptian antiquities. There are fourteen clear illustrations in the text, and fifteen full-page plates in half-tone. It is a convenient little manual for the traveler or student. (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1923. 178 pp. \$2.00.)

The Living Age, of November 19th, reprints from *The London Outlook*, of October 25th, a series of British Campaign articles under the caption, "A Party Symposium." The author of "The Case for Conservatism" contends that "Conservatism is always anxious that a step once taken shall not be retraced...in its quiet, practical way [it] urges continuity of policy springing from an agreement between parties, or at least between agriculturists themselves....[It] finds in the Empire a field for the exercise of the special quality of practical vision."

The advocate of the merits of the Liberal Party desires "Reform which arises from the careful consideration of each problem as it arises....which recognizes the limitations of human impulses....which shall not wantonly destroy the past and its institutions, but shall adapt them to the needs of the present,—which is based not upon some harebrained conception of social justice, but upon the broad principles of economics and utility" and which he feels can be attained only by the Liberals.

"Labor's Socialism means in principle nothing more than that the interests of the State as a whole are greater than the interests of any one class" is the gist of the third article, a defense of the late Premier MacDonald and his government.

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Correction

On page 325 of the October, 1924, issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, there appeared the following notice: "Gettell, Raymond G. *The Constitution of the United States: Century*. 522 pp. \$3.75."

Prof. Gettell's work on the Constitution is published by Ginn & Company; while his other recent work, entitled "History of Political Thought," containing 511 pp., is published by the Century Company, and sells for \$3.75.

School Savings Banking

A good citizen wastes neither his own income, any other citizen's, nor the public's. To implant in the thoughts and conduct of our junior citizens ideals and habits of thrift and wise economy is, therefore, a most valuable feature of citizenship training. The first annual report of the Savings Bank Division of the American Bankers' Association, New York, on School Savings Banking during the school year of 1923-4, indicates that this sort of practical instruction has made a permanent place for itself in school activities, and is rapidly progressing, both in the number of schools which have installed school savings systems and the amount of savings which have been accumulated thereby.

From this report, we learn that in five years the number of schools participating in this activity has increased from 2,736 to 9,080, and that the bank balances as of June 30th, in each year have gone up from \$4,200,872.32 to \$20,435,144.64. A striking fact in this connection is that over 40 per cent. of this latest bank balance was accumulated during the last school year. The average collection of depositors naturally shows a wide variation in different places, but goes up as high as \$34.59 in Revere, Massachusetts, and \$29.36 in Newburgh, New York. The schools in ten communities are reported as having 100 per cent. of their enrollment participating in the school savings banking. Even in a city as large as Pittsburgh, 83 per cent. participate. In Duluth, Memphis, and Providence, over 98 per cent. participate. Two hundred and twenty-five places show 75 per cent. or better.

At least one-tenth of the pupils in our schools are known to be actually participating in the various school savings banking accounts, and there doubtless are many more, for the report on which this note is based presents no records at all from seven states in the Union. To the extent that the institution of school savings banking systems cultivates the bank habit, and that small savings accounts today may develop into large and active accounts later, the activities of the American Bankers' Association in promoting school savings funds may not be altogether altruistic. Nevertheless, the work which they have done in this direction cannot fail to be of immense value to the children in our schools and to the communities in which they live. R. O. H.

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from October 25 to November 29, 1924

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.
AMERICAN HISTORY

- Alvarez, Alejandro. *The Monroe doctrine; its importance in the international of the states of the New World*. N. Y.: Oxford. 582 pp. \$3.00.
- Andrews, Charles M. *The colonial background of the American Revolution*. New Haven: Yale Univ. 228 pp. \$2.50.
- Carrington, Wirt J. *A history of Halifax County, Virginia*. Richmond, Va.: Appeals Press. 525 pp. \$5.00.
- Cox, John, Jr., editor. *Oyster Bay town record*, vol. 2. N. Y.: T. A. Wright, 150 Bleeker St. 754 pp. \$10.00.
- Crowe, Marie. *Supplementary studies in American history, book I*. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan. 304 pp. 96c.
- Desmond, Humphrey J. *Curious chapters in American history*. St. Louis: B. Herder. 270 pp. \$1.50.
- Fitzpatrick, John C. *The spirit of the [American] Revolution*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 312 pp. \$4.00.
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